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MORPHOLOGY, MATERIAL FOR INCORPORATION IN CURRICULA OF GRADES 11 AND 12.

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THIS NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY PROJECT ENGLISH UNIT IS PLANNED TO COMPLEMENT THE GRAMMAR WHICH 11TH- AND 12TH-GRADE STUDENTS ALREADY KNOW, AND TO ENRICH THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. THOUGH NOT PRIMARILY AN INTRODUCTION TO THE PARTS OF SPEECH, THE UNIT PROVIDES SECTIONS ON NOUNS, VERBS AND AUXILIARIES, ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS, CONJUNCTIONS, SUBORDINATORS, SENTENCE CONNECTORS, PRONOUNS, AND QUALIFIERS. THE UNIT ALSO CONTAINS (1) A DIAGNOSTIC TEST ON THE PARTS OF SPEECH, (2) A LESSON PLAN TO INTRODUCE MORPHEMICS, (3) AN INTRODUCTION TO VOCABULARY STUDY, (4) A SECTION ON DERIVATIONAL SUFFIXES, (5) A LESSON USING THE PARTS OF SPEECH IN TEACHING THE ESSAY OF DEFINITION, (6) AN INTRODUCTION TO A 12TH-GRADE UNIT ON THE PARTS OF SPEECH AND FORMAL DEFINITION, AND (7) A TEST ON PHONOLOGY, MORPHOLOGY, AND SYNTAX. PARTS OR ALL OF THIS UNIT CAN BE USED (1) PRECEDING OR FOLLOWING A UNIT ON SYNTAX, (2) FOLLOWING A UNIT ON PHONOLOGY, (3) IN AN HONORS SENIOR ENGLISH CLASS, OR (4) TO ENRICH A PROGRAM FOR SUPERIOR STUDENTS. (MM)

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MORPHOLOGY

Material for incorporation in curricula of grades 11 and 12

Caution: These materials are being used experimentally by Project English participants, who are continuing to develop them. All material included, therefore, should be considered tentative drafts which will undergo extensive revision.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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I. Preliminaries

A. Objectives:

To help students understand the process of defining terms, the procedures and difficulties

To lead students to an understanding of linguistic operations

To help students discover some of the bases for their intuitions concerning language

To show students that language involves systems of sounds and symbols

To help students understand the concept of form and position classes

To help students understand the difference between lexical and grammatical meaning

To suggest solutions to some usage problems

B. A Note to the Teacher

This unit is planned to complement the grammar which high school students already know, and generally to enrich the understanding they have of their language. The material is not primarily designed as an introduction to the parts of speech.

Explanations and exercises are comprehensive; they can be adapted for use in long or short units. For example, material can be used in the following ways: (1) In an honors section it can be used as enrichment preparation for further study of language in college. (2) It can be used in conjunction with the essay of definition, a standard assignment in senior English. See III, E and F. (3) Certain material might be adapted for use with remedial students. (4) Some can be used to illustrate the transition of English from a highly inflected language to a word order language in which a few inflections remain as form class markers. (See the History of the Language units) (5) Because the approach to the parts of speech in this unit is similar to the approach used by many teachers of foreign language, the two methods can be used to reinforce one another. (6) Although most of the exercises are not usage-directed, some of the material can aid the student in making appropriate choices in his handling of the language.

III E and III F, a study of definition, can be used in their entirety. They are included, however, only to illustrate two methods of using this material in a senior English class. III A, a diagnostic test, can be administered at the beginning and/or end of the unit to illustrate to the students certain inadequacies of traditional terminology, to help the teacher plan the comprehensiveness of the unit, and/or to serve as an evaluative device.

Because it is highly unlikely that this entire unit would be taught at the senior high school level, it is not divided into daily or weekly lesson plans. Materials here are designed to be adapted, supplemented, and compressed as the individual teaching situation requires. The entire unit, or parts of the unit, can be used (1) preceding or following a unit on syntax, (2) after a unit on phonology, (3) in an honors senior English class, (4) as enrichment for superior students.

II. Parts of Speech

A. Introduction

As we begin our study of parts of speech let's abandon the notion that lexical, or dictionary, meanings of words are useful in establishing the differences among the various parts of speech. Take, for example, the verbs _move_ and _assist_. If we define these words by their lexical meanings, as our more traditional grammar would do it, we would call them "action words." _Movement_ and _assistance_ express action too, but they are not verbs. So, while these four words express a kind of common meaning, action, this meaning is too general to be of much use to us.

Since we will no longer define parts of speech by their lexical meanings, we'll have to look for something else. _Move_ and _assist_ are alike in that they occur in a number of positions in English sentences. They will both fill the blank space in

Let's ____________: Let's move. Let's assist.

and in He'll ____________: He'll move. He'll assist.

and in We ____________ -ed: We moved. We assisted.

Thus, we will say that these two "pattern" in the same way. We also notice that _movement_ and _assistance_ will not pattern in the three positions occupied by _move_ and _assist_ because they are differentiated from them by the endings _-ment_ and _-ance_.

This leads us to the second criterion for identifying parts of speech, their suffixes, or endings. We'll discuss these more fully later on, but let's turn to an example for a moment. Think about the blank space in

This is ____________.

We can fill this blank with adjectives like warm or ridiculous or with nouns like warmth or ridiculousness. Thus, we call this position shared because it can be filled by both adjectives and nouns. The three positions above occupied by move and assist are unshared since they can be filled only by verbs.

In a shared position we cannot identify by position alone the part of speech that fills it. The words that fill this position must be identified in some other way such as by the noun endings -th on warmth and -ness on ridiculousness.

Sometimes we can identify parts of speech by the small words like to, a, the, may, that go with them.

So far, then, we have mentioned three criteria for identifying parts of speech: position in a pattern, endings, and recognizable small words which are called structure words.

The discussion to this point can be summarized by considering this sentence:

The murning crannels stolled over to the rix and burfed morgously.

Can you name all the parts of speech in this sentence? Consider the grammatical signals of position in a pattern, word endings, and recognizable small words as you answer the following questions.

1. What words do you immediately recognize?
2. What is the subject?
3. Is this a sentence?
4. Is there a verb? If so, how can you identify it?
5. Are there any adverb ideas of time, place, or manner?
6. How many parts of speech can you identify by endings?
7. How many parts of speech can you identify by word order?
8. Do recognizable small words help in identifying sentence elements?

9. What is the "tone" of this group of words? Happy or sad?

10. What words have sounds that suggest a "tone" or line of action?

11. Substitute real words for the nonsense ones. Be sure that the substituted words have the proper endings.

Before we go on to discuss parts of speech we must consider one more feature of description. As you parsed the nonsense sentence above, you came across the pattern

The murning crannels

Quite clearly we have here the sequence "article-modifier-noun." The position occupied by murning is shared, e.g., we can place in this position the adjective round, the verb burning, or the noun stone.

the round house
the burning house
the stone house

Each of the underlined words is a different part of speech, yet each performs the modifying function of an adjective. Accordingly, we will call all words and word-groups that occur in the position before a noun and after an article adjectivals. Now we are using one word, adjective, plus the suffix -al, to describe a position class. The suffix -al added to adjective, adverb, noun, or verb* makes a word which describes the position class of words or word-groups that fill shared positions. One more example will suffice:

Consider the following pattern:

____________ are hungry.

The blank space is filled by the subject. Usually, the subject of a sentence is a noun:

Dogs are hungry.

But this position can be filled by larger constructions such as "article plus noun":

The dogs are hungry.

---

* The term "verbal" as used here does not carry the conventional meaning of participial or infinitive forms. Rather, it refers to words occurring in verb position. Since the verb position is an unshared position, every word in verb position is simultaneously a verb and a verbal.

or by an "article plus adjective":

The poor are hungry.

or by a much larger word group:

All the little, old, brown dogs are hungry.

Sometimes a verb is the subject of a sentence:

Swimming is fun.

One way of describing the subject of a sentence, then, be it noun, article plus noun, article plus adjective, larger word group, or a verb, is to call the subject a nominal. Nominal means: "Any word or word-group filling a shared position most frequently occupied by a noun."

Word Classes

If we consider English words on the basis of their patterning, the positions they occupy in English sentences, we can divide them into four large groups and several smaller ones. The words in the four larger groups are often identified as belonging to a particular group by their endings, e.g., nouns take plural s, verbs take -ing, adjectives and adverbs take -er, and -est, etc. Because of these, and many other distinctive features of form, we will call nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs form class words. Form class words not only have distinctive forms; they also have lexical meaning when they stand alone.

In addition to the form classes, our language has a large number of other words. The function of these words is to connect the form class words and to expand and combine English sentence patterns in various ways. We will call these words structure words. Unlike form class words, structure words usually do not have lexical meaning. They have no meaning until they occur in English sentences.

Consider this group of words; each has a kind of minimal significance.

bus, on, to, went, the, home, his,man

Let's pull from this group the words with the most obvious lexical meanings:

bus, went, home, man

The words with the least lexical significance remain:

on, to, the, his

Now let's put the words with lexical meaning, the form class words, into an order that suggests a sentence meaning :

man went home bus

A sentence begins to form. But we need the structure words to connect the form class words and make a grammatical sentence:

The man went to his home on the bus.

Form class words, then, are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Structure words are prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, qualifiers, noun determiners (articles), and pronouns.

II B. The Noun

A noun by definition is usually said to be the name of a person, place or thing; however, this definition of the English noun is a classic of circularity. Since noun means name, the definition amounts to a name is a name. To rectify this, grammarians have amplified it with enumerations and examples. One extended definition is:

> A noun is a "name" of a person (girl, man, lady, Bill, Tom, Oscar Hammerstein, Amelia Earhart), place (city, town, ocean, hills, the Green Mountains, Chattanooga, Isthmus of Panama, Lake Ontario), thing (table, book, automobile, tooth, chalkboard, U.S.S. George Washington, United States Building), event (hike, race, assassination, earthquake, election, promotion, Olympics), or concept (justice, love, charity, goodness, evolution, accomplishment). Certain kinds of nouns based on verbs designate actions ("His running," "Her writing," "Their swimming," "The dog's barking"); verbal nouns ending in the suffix -ing are called gerunds.

This type of definition could be extended indefinitely to include most of the lexicon, obviously "an exercise in futility." Classification of the elements of the universe may be a study for the geographer, physicist, chemist, and even the psychologist, but it is hardly the proper study for the grammarian. Rather than a lexical definition, a descriptive definition of a noun helps us to understand more about nouns and how they operate in English sentences.

Descriptive definition of the noun:

1. Inflections to signal plural (- (e) s), possessive (-'s), and plural possessive (-s') may be considered proper to nouns.
2. Derivational suffixes (-tion, -acy, -al, -ant, -ance, ity, - ship, -ure, and others) may be considered noun markers.
3. Determiners such as the, a/an, my, your, our, their, may be considered noun markers.

4. Position in a sentence in relation to other words like verbs and other parts of speech helps us to identify nouns.

We can speak about this "description of nouns" as "noun signals" and talk about them as form (numbers 1 and 2 above), structure words or determiners (number 3), and position (number 4). The three signals of nouns, therefore, are:

1. form
2. structure words
3. position

Form: Inflectional suffixes

As a form class most nouns change in the same way, and we call these changes inflectional suffixes (endings). When a word changes form (boy, boys), the change is known as inflection. As we have noted, nouns change forms to indicate singular and plural or to show possession. Derivational suffixes, which also are a change in form, will be discussed later.

Consider the following list of words and write their plural forms; note the kinds of endings needed to indicate more than one.

	Singular	Plural
1.	pencil	
2.	bus	
3.	lady	
4.	tomato	
5.	piano	
6.	man	
7.	loaf	
8.	child	
9.	deer	
10.	measles	
11.	clothes	
12.	anger	

Look at the words deer, measles, clothes, anger. Which of these words would fit into the following slot?

(The)* _______________ is dangerous.

Some _________________ are dangerous.

*The use of the is optional.

It is obvious that all nouns do not change in the same way to form their plurals. The following list and categories should give you a good idea of the ways in which nouns take inflectional suffixes to form their plurals. Fill in the plural form in the space provided.

a. Most nouns add an "s" to form the plural:

Singular	Plural
pencil	
paper	
book	
seat	
chair	

b. Nouns ending in /s/, /ch/, /x/, /sh/, /z/ add "es" to the singular to form the plural.

Singular	Plural
bus	
watch	
fox	
brush	
quiz	

c. Nouns ending in /y/ change if the /y/ is preceded by a consonant; the /y/ is changed to "i" and "es" is added.

Singular	Plural
lady	
baby	
army	
berry	
trophy	

d. To form the plurals of nouns ending in "o" add "es."

Singular	Plural
hero	
potato	
tomato	
Negro	

e. Musical terms follow the general formation of the plural by simply adding "s."

Singular	Plural
piano	
basso	
soprano	
alto	
banjo	

f. The following words retain the same letter in the final position; however, they indicate their plural forms by an internal vowel change.

Singular	Plural
man	
mouse	
foot	
tooth	

g. Nouns ending in "f" or "fe" take "ves" to form their plural:

Singular	Plural
loaf	
leaf	
knife	
life	

h. Some nouns form their plurals by adding "en":

Singular	Plural
child	
ox	

i. Some nouns have the same form for singular and plural:

deer

salmon

sheep

Chinese

Japanese

species

j. Other nouns ending in "s" are plural in meaning:

clothes
pants
scissors
} These words pattern with the plural form of verbs.

k. Foreign words ending in "us" take "i" in the plural:

alumnus
stimulus
} + "i" = Plural Form

Foreign words ending in "um" take "a" in the plural:

datum + "a" = Plural Form

1. Some nouns are used only in the singular form; these are usually called "uncountable" nouns. These nouns are not preceded by a or an and generally do not occur in plural forms. The following lists are the common categories in which uncountable nouns occur:

Gases:

hydrogen
oxygen
nitrogen
air
smoke

Fluids:

water
oil
milk
soup
ink

Natural Phenomena:

electricity
heat
darkness
sunshine
weather

Materials with Particles too Small to Count

dirt
dust
flour
salt
grass
hair
rice
sand

Academic Studies

chemistry
economics
mathematics
physics

Abstractions

bravery
courage
happiness
honesty
love

Others

advice
ignorance
intelligence
knowledge
trouble

n. Nouns which are plural (collective) in meaning but singular in form are called "mass nouns." These words can add "s" for a secondary plural:

fruit
water
ton
hundred
people
fish

Those words, except in special circumstances, pattern with singular verbs.

Fish is served on Friday.

The fish are biting.

Various kinds of fishes were displayed.

A Work Sheet for Teaching Possessives

Nouns are inflected to show ownership; the signal is the apostrophe.

To avoid awkward "of" phrases, such as: "the book of my father," English provides us with the convenient alternative "my father's book."

The following four categories illustrate the use of the apostrophe. Read the examples and expand the list in each class. From your observation of these words and the placement of the apostrophe, form four general guidelines for the use of the apostrophe to form the possessive.

I. 1. girl's book (The book belonging to one girl)
   2. boy's book
   3. Sam's book
   4. Jane's book

II. This group is different from the preceding because it ends in "s" although it too is singular.

   1. Mr. Jones' car (one person named Jones)
   2. James' car
   3. Thomas' car

III. These nouns are plural, but they do not end in "s"; however, they do resemble the first group because possession is shown by adding an apostrophe and an "s."

   1. firemen's pay (the pay of several firemen)
   2. children's pay
   3. fathers-in-law's jobs (two or more fathers)

IV. The last category of the possessive case is plural nouns which end in "s."

   1. soldiers' pay (the pay of several soldiers)
   2. ladies' pay
   3. boys' pay
   4. doctors' pay

Now compare these formations and categorize the distinctions which govern the position of the apostrophe.

Sing. Poss.	Plural Poss.
1. girl's book	3. men's pay
2. Thomas' book	4. girls' books

Form:

Derivational Suffixes

Nouns are also identified by derivational suffixes, which added to verbs, adjectives, and other nouns mark these words as nouns.

Words like "survive" and "vain" can pattern like nouns. When we speak of the quality abstractly as it applies to one man, we would add *ity* to "vain" and speak of "vanity."

The vanity of this man is well known.

Other adjectives change in this way also:

good - goodness

better - betterment

kind - kindness

The verb "survive" patterns and changes like a verb:

survive - survived - survived

When we speak of "the survival of the fittest," the derivational suffix *al* and the determiner *the* clearly mark the word as a noun. Note also that as a noun, "survival" can be inflected as other nouns and take a plural.

Such survivals are rare.

Some common noun derivational suffixes are:

-tion
-age
-dom
-acy
-ure
-sion
-ant
-ery
-hood
-ance
-ship
-ment
-ness
-ade
-ity

Although these suffixes have meaning, and you will find them listed in the dictionary, you know that they cannot stand alone and must be joined with other forms. This necessary relationship classifies these derivational suffixes as "bound forms."

Compose a list of verbs, adjectives and nouns; using the list of derivational suffixes, give the appropriate noun forms.

Example:

Verb	Suffix	Noun
achieve	-ment	achievement
Adjective		
better	-ment	betterment
Noun		
brother	-hood	brotherhood

As you have noticed by making a list using derivational suffixes, a great many words are flexible because they can move from one class to another. Once you understand fully this flexibility, you will realize how unsatisfactory it is to categorize a word by a rigid definition. Therefore, in defining "noun" several factors must be considered. The position of a word in a sentence is obviously one; but it is not absolute and cannot be the sole criterion. The many possible endings a word can take, both inflectional and derivational suffixes, and the ways in which a word can be patterned with determiners help us to determine its use as a noun in a sentence.

Proper Nouns:

The convention in English is to capitalize all proper nouns; capitalization alerts the reader to the particular use of the capitalized word. Some proper nouns pattern with determiners, while others do not. After reading the following sentences, make some observations, intuitively, about the differences between those nouns preceded by determiners and those which are not.

New York hails Queen Mary.
New York hails the Queen Mary.

Paris is the city of lights.
The Paris of the South is New Orleans.

Mark Twain was familiar with the Mississippi, but he did not live in Mississippi.

Construct a list of proper nouns in which the determiner the removes the ambiguity.

Example: The Ohio - a river ; Ohio - a state

II C. The Verb and Auxiliaries

The English verb is not simple to describe or understand. Whole books have been written about it. All teachers have been plagued by students' problems of agreement, unnecessary tense shifts, and parts of verbs used as main verbs. The fact that problems like these have persisted through multitudes of themes suggests that we should try a somewhat different approach to understanding how our language operates. One thing is quite certain: we cannot afford to avoid talking about the verb, for not much can be said or written without it.

Traditionally, the verb has been defined as a word that "shows action or state of being." The problem with this definition is that many words that are not verbs have some element of action in them. For example, cry, whisper, walk, study, although they express action, can also be used as nouns. How then can we best describe the class of words called verbs?

VERBS: FORMAL CHARACTERISTICS

Inflectional Suffixes and Tenses

You have already learned that nouns have inflectional endings or suffixes for plural and for singular and plural possessive forms. You know that most verbs have a base (as (to) print) to which certain endings are added to change the grammatical but not the lexical or dictionary meaning of the word. Most verbs have four inflectional endings, each of which helps to signal a certain principal (or other) part of the verb. Any word, to meet the test of a verb, must fit at least three of the slots of the verb paradigm.

Study for formal characteristics of the verb meander in these sentences:

1. Momentarily I meander.

1a. He will meander.

2. Hap the Hound meander*s* regularly.

3. Usually I am meander*ing*.

4. Yesterday I meander*ed* across town.

5. I have meander*ed* through the meadow many times.

5a. He had meander*ed* too many miles before he realized the time.

5b. Tim will have meander*ed* too near the pond before you will reach him.

The verb *meander* in the first sentence is the uninflected form of the word. Although the stem form does not always express present time in a sentence, it does express the *present* in sentence number 1. In contrast are these uses:

Examples: I practice on Mondays.

He travels to Canada every summer.

Tomorrow I shop for food.

The uninflected form is also used with auxiliaries (structure words) *shall* and *will* to denote simple future. (See 1a.) The inflectional suffix *-s* in sentence number 2 signals a third person, singular number noun or pronoun occurring with a present tense verb: *He meanders*. (You have now learned three uses of the *-s* inflectional suffix as a form class signal.) The *-ing* ending in sentence number 3 is called the present participle ending. It is never used alone as a main or full verb. Usually preceding it are such structure group words as *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, etc., to carry tense meaning. *Is writing*, *was listening*, *will be canoeing*, are called progressive forms because they show action continuing in the present, future, past. The *-ed* suffix in number 4 is the simple *past* tense ending.

You have just reviewed briefly the forms and meanings of the simple tenses in English. The three perfect tenses denote time previous to the time of one of the simple tenses. Read sentence number 5. Notice that the auxiliary *have* (*has*) combines with the *-ed* ending or past participle form to express *present perfect* time or time previous to the present. The auxiliary *had* combines with the same verb form to express time earlier than some past time. This is called *past perfect*. The structure words *shall have* and *will have* combine with the past participle form to express *future perfect* time or time earlier than some future time.

EXERCISE 1. Fill in the following verb paradigm. The model using the verb *walk* will direct you.

STEM UNINFLECTED FORM	PRES. PART.	THIRD PERSON PRES., SING.	PAST TENSE	PAST PART.
walk	walking	walk*s*	walk*ed*	walk*ed*
1. help				
2. clean				
3. gather				
4. bloom				
5. live				

You recall that verbs whose past tense and past participle forms do not change are called *regular verbs*. Those verbs whose past tense and past participle forms are different are called *irregular verbs*. To which group do the five verbs in Exercise 1 belong?

EXERCISE 2. The stems in the left-hand column are those of irregular verbs. Fill in the paradigm and be ready to explain what each inflectional ending denotes.

STEM: UNINFLECTED FORM	PRES. PART.	THIRD PERSON PRES., SING.	PAST TENSE	PAST PART.
1. sleep	sleeping	sleeps	slept	slept
2. creep				
3. kneel				

4. stand
5. buy
6. catch
7. think
8. break
9. drink
10. say
11. give
12. swim
13. sing
14. drive
15. know

Most of the verbs have four forms in the above paradigm (other than the stem). What ones have fewer forms? Does each form have a specific job?

TO REMEMBER: Only words that fit at least three slots of the verb paradigm are verbs.

MODAL AUXILIARIES

We have seen that the present participle, -ing form, combines with one of the forms of be to make a full verb. The part participle combines with have, has, or had, and sometimes the emphatic do, (does) or did are auxiliaries.

Examples:	is speaking	has spoken	do speak
	are speaking	have spoken	does speak
	was/were speaking	had spoken	did speak

In addition to these auxiliary verbs which act as verb markers helping to denote tense are the modal auxiliaries. They do not have principal parts; hence they do not fit the verb paradigm. This small group contains structure words which carry some lexical meaning, and although they do not always express time, there is some implication of futurity in all of them.

EXERCISE 3. Without using a dictionary, write a word or phrase of definition of each of these modal auxiliaries.

may	can	will	shall	would
might	could	must	should	ought (to)

If you found that you could not do the whole exercise without a dictionary, consult one now.

EXERCISE 4. Use each of the modal auxiliaries in a sentence, keeping in mind the meaning of each one.

In addition to functioning as auxiliaries in a sentence, be, have, and do are sometimes main or full verbs.

	Auxiliaries	Full Verbs
Examples:	I am reading.	He is a prisoner.
	He has gone.	She has a banjo.
	She does want you.	We do the raking together.

EXERCISE 5. Underline the auxiliaries in these sentences.

1. Herbert has a motorcycle.
2. He could have been injured.
3. You ought to have answered the letter.
4. Bill did the assignment.
5. I do leave every day at five.
6. She must be informed.
7. Susan has been elected.
8. They are calling for help.
9. The committee had met.
10. The two captains were arguing.

The two verb markers which we have discussed so far—the inflection and the auxiliary—are the most important signals of verbs. The other markers are derivative affixes, stress superfixes, and position.

Derivational Affixes

In addition to having inflectional endings and auxiliaries that serve as verb markers, some verbs have derivational suffixes (and a few have prefixes) that distinguish them as verbs. The most common ones are *-fy*, *-ize*, *-ate*, *-en*, and the prefix *en-*.

EXERCISE 6. Add the derivational suffix *-fy* to these adjectives to form verbs.

1. pure
2. beautiful
3. solid
4. specific
5. satisfactory
6. vile
7. mystical
8. intense
9. pacific
10. electric

Add to this group three verbs with the *-fy* ending added to bound forms (parts that are not used alone to form words).

Examples: *stultify*; *mollify*

1\.

2\.

3\.

EXERCISE 7. Another derivational suffix often used with nouns (and sometimes with bound stems and adjectives) to form verbs is the *-ize* suffix. Add the suffix *-ize* to these nouns to form verbs.

1. civilization
2. analysis
3. summary
4. mesmerism
5. satire
6. idol
7. standard
8. deputy
9. criticism
10. synthesis

Add the *-ize* suffix to three bound forms to make verbs.

Examples: *ostracize*; *organize*

1\.

2\.

3\.

EXERCISE 8. The *-en* suffix is added to some nouns, one-syllable adjectives, and some bound stems.

Examples: lengthen, soften, hasten

Build five verbs with noun, adjective, or verb stems and the -en suffix.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

EXERCISE 9. Think of bound stems or nouns to which the suffix -ate is added to form verbs. Write the verbs.

Examples: debilitate, equivocate, punctuate, operate

1. 2. 3.

The prefix en- (em-, variant form) is added to many words to form verbs: embezzle, embark, encamp, enact.

EXERCISE 10. List ten verbs which have been formed by adding the prefix en- to nouns, other verbs, verb or adjective stems.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.

Less frequently used verbs than those we have been describing are the verbs built with the be- prefix added to nouns and other verbs: besmirch, beguile, belittle.

Other Verb Formations: Homophones, Agentives, Stress and Functional Shift

Words in the English language which are spelled and pronounced alike are called homophones. Some of these are nouns and verbs. They must be seen or heard in context to be understood.

EXERCISE 11. Use the following words first as nouns, then as verbs.

1. cable
2. picture
3. chant
4. measure
5. set
6. couch
7. gorge
8. feature
9. function
10. garden

Our language is rich with nouns that have the -er suffix. When the suffix is dropped, we usually have a verb. Examples: farmer - farm; singer - sing; interrogator (-or variant) - interrogate. Does a plumber plumb? This process is called back-formation.

EXERCISE 12. Write ten verbs formed in this way from nouns.

A few words in our language have only a slight change in spelling and/or pronunciation as they move from noun to verb form class.

Examples: house /s/ sibilant voiceless for noun and voiced for verb

mouth /th/ fricative voiceless for noun and voiced for verb

Can you think of others?

Other words signal a shift from one form class to another by a shift in the primary stress and sometimes a change in a vowel sound.

Examples: cónvert (n) convért (v) ; eláborate /ilæb rit/ (adj.) élaborate /ilaboreyt/ (v); prédicate /predikət/ (n) prédicate /predikeyt/ (v)

EXERCISE 13. Write ten words whose shift from noun to verb or adjective to verb is signaled by shift in primary stress and/or change in vowel sound.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.

EXERCISE 14. Write the verbs that derive from these nouns and adjectives. Underline the verb-forming affix (prefix or suffix).

EXERCISE 14. (continued)

1. elevator ________________
2. organization ________________
3. internal ________________
4. modal ________________
5. magnet ________________
6. prison ________________
7. italics ________________
8. paralysis ________________
9. system ________________
10. code ________________
11. extemporaneous ________________
12. television ________________
13. ripe ________________
14. horror ________________
15. explication ________________
16. thrall ________________

VERBS: POSITION OR PATTERN

Although English verbs may appear in various positions in the sentence, they do appear more frequently in some positions than in others. The most common position is following the noun subject. Less frequently the subject follows the verb or the verb position at the end of the sentence following the subject and several modifiers.

A look at the three kinds of verbs and how they pattern in sentences will help us to distinguish them.

Intransitive verbs have no direct object or complement and usually no passive voice. They may or may not have modifiers following them.

In
Examples: Frogs croak (continuously).

Lie in the hammock.

He came
stopped
appeared (IMMEDIATELY).
rose
sank

Transitive verbs are very common in our language. They have both active and passive voice. Transitive active verbs have a direct object, and they may have an object complement. Transitive passive verbs let the subject receive the action.

Tr A D O
Examples: The penguins have washed their tuxedos.
Tr P
Their tuxedos have been washed by the penguins.
Tr A D O
Sam treasured his father's library.
Tr P
His father's library was treasured by Sam.

Transitive verbs may have two complements, both referring to the same person or thing. One is the direct object and the other a complement of the direct object or an object complement.

D O Ob C
Examples: The board named Mr. Adams the new director.
D O Ob C
I presumed him free.

Other object complement verbs are these: elected, believed, found, consider, painted, thought.

The linking verb occurs somewhere between the subject and a subject complement (noun or adjective).

Examples: He seemed weary.
George was moderator.

Some form of be is the most common linking verb. A number of linking verbs link only adjectives to their subjects.

Examples: The horn sounds harsh.
The bouquet smells sweet.
Nodo sleeps warm.
Grizzly went blind.
The stream runs clear.
The corn tastes juicy.
The horse broke loose.
She acted officious.
Aunt Jane keeps happy.
He feels sick.

Grows, gets, rings, weighs, looms, and falls when followed by adjectives are also linking verbs.

Some of these verbs, when not linking verbs, are intransitive.

For example: Go now. Sleep well. He fell hard.

Some linking verbs can also occur as transitive verbs:

He proved the inefficiency. Wind turned the wheel.

They continued their assistance.

EXERCISE 15. Write sentences using the following verbs in the patterns designated.

1.	(fly)	N	Tr A	D O	
2.	"	N	Int	(Adv)	
3.	(call)	N	Tr A	D O	O C
4.	"	N	Tr A	D O	
5.	(felt)	N	L V	Adj	
6.	"	N	Tr A	D O	
7.	(bathe)	N	Tr P	(Modifiers)	
8.	"	N	Int		
9.	(turn)	N	L V	(Adj)	
10.	"	N	Int		
11.	"	N	Tr A	D O	
12.	"	N	Tr P	(Modifiers)	

II D. THE ADJECTIVE

Introduction. Like the noun and the verb that we have already examined, adjectives may be identified by both formal and positional signals. Recognition of how these signals operate may be useful to us not only in identifying adjectives, but also in understanding certain important distinctions among them.

Let us examine the following phrases:

the new radio
the car radio

Though we may not be able to say what the difference is, most of us will sense intuitively that these structures are not grammatically the same. Observe that we may speak of the newer radio and the newest radio, using the grammatical feature of comparison. However, we find that car cannot be compared in this way. Thus, while it is found here in an identical position with new, it does not belong to the same form class.

Furthermore, although new and car share the same positions here, they cannot share all the same positions. We may say The radio is new, but not The radio is car.

I. FORM CLASS

A. Inflectional suffixes. The example of new indicates the most important single identifying feature of the adjective, its ability to be compared. One-syllable and some two-syllable adjectives which take the inflectional suffixes -er and -est to form the comparative and superlative degrees are known as base adjectives:

clear	clearer	clearest
tall	taller	tallest
gentle	gentler	gentlest

Exercise 1. Underline the base adjectives in the following list:

late, happy, fruitful, pleasant, black

A small but important group of adjectives that are compared irregularly includes these:

good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least

B. Structure words. A second and very large group of adjectives form their comparative and superlative degrees with the structure words more and most. Usually these are not base adjectives, but derived adjectives, adjectives which are formed by the addition of certain adjective-forming derivational suffixes to free or bound stems:

wonderful	more wonderful	most wonderful
capable	more capable	most capable
active	more active	most active

C. Derivational suffixes. Derivational suffixes help us to describe the form class of adjectives in two ways:

1. Since adverbs as well as adjectives may be compared (well, better, best; cleverly, more cleverly, most cleverly), we need to distinguish the form classes adjective and adverb in some further way.

All the following words may be compared, but not all are adjectives: slow, friendly, stingily, regular, white, helpfully, ill. Of these, stingily and helpfully are never adjectives, while slow and late may be either adjectives or adverbs. Adjectives may be described as those words which may be compared and which may form adverbs with the derivational suffix-ly and/or nouns with the derivational suffix -ness

Examples:				
great	greater	greatest	greatly	greatness
white	whiter	whitest		whiteness
sunny	sunnier	sunniest	sunnily	sunniness

Exercise 2. Fill in the blanks, indicating the changes in form of the words in the following list. Using the above description, identify those words that are not adjectives, and circle them.

-er -est -ly -ness

1. a tame lion
2. a nice distinction
3. a strange day
4. a foolish thought
5. a fast car
6. an aged man
7. a galloping horse
8. a national anthem
9. the village hall
10. the busy mother

2. Derivational suffixes alone help identify adjectives. As we

have seen, these are called *derived adjectives* and are usually compared with *more* and *most* rather than with *-er* and *-est*. The following lists contain the most common adjective-forming derivational suffixes.

Suffixes added to nouns to make adjectives:

-*y*: faulty, leafy
-*al*: national, traditional
-*ful*: hopeful, useful
-*less*: hopeless, useless
-*ar*: popular, columnar
-*ary*: legendary
-*ic*: climatic
-*ish*: childish
-*ous*: marvelous
-*en*: wooden
-*ed*: aged, ragged
-*ly*: friendly, homely

Suffixes added to verbs to make adjectives:

-*able*: remarkable, understandable
-*ent*: abhorrent
-*ive*: active
-*ed*: tired, complicated
-*ing*: exciting, revealing

Adjective-forming suffixes may be added to bound stems, as in *credible*, *fragile*, *usual*, etc.

Exercise 3. Complete the second column in each of the following lists. These derived adjectives illustrate some of the most common adjective-forming derivational suffixes. (There is more than one possible answer in some cases.)

Noun	*Derived Adjective*
beauty	*beautiful*
penny	*penniless*
heaven	
athlete	
cloud	
emotion	
spectacle	
nerve	
custom	
fool	

Verb	Derived Adjective
break	
charm	
produce	
interest	
resist	

Exercise 4. The following sentences contain base and derived adjectives. Determine which words are adjectives according to the features of form described above. Underline each adjective and above it write B (base) or D (derived). There are 12 adjectives in the exercise.

1. Three yellow ducks waddled slowly around the farmer's large barn.
2. Further tedious effort proved unnecessary.
3. The long, lazy summer afternoon passed without any news, godd or bad.
4. The local laundry service was both expensive and slow.

II. POSITION CLASS:

The most frequent position of the adjective is between noun determiner and noun: the unhappy man, those long essays, that old building. However, when we examine the sentences in the exercise above, or the following phrases, we find that many words may occupy this position that do not have the characteristics of form describbd above.

Exercise 5. Underline the words in the following phrases that are adjectives according to form class:

1. the handsome man
2. the friendly man
3. the singing man
4. the ice-cream man
5. a mere man
6. the alert man
7. a hostile man
8. the last man
9. the white man
10. the kind man

Some of the above phrases cleafly contain words belonging to the form class adjective, such as friendly. Others contain words that are uninflected (last) or that have or may have inflectional suffixes which identify them as belonging to other form classes (singing, a verb, ice-cream, a noun).

Thus, just as we have seen a position class of nominals, so we find a position class of *adjectivals*. Adjectivals are *elements that occupy the most frequent adjective positions*, the most important being, as we have seen, the position between determiner and noun.

Exercise 6. All the underlined words in the following phrases are *adjectivals*. By using the formal characteristics described above, identify the nouns, adjectives, and verbs. Write *A* after each phrase containing an adjective, *V* after each phrase containing a verb as modifier, and *N* after each phrase containing a noun as a modifier.

1. a *sunny* day ______
2. a *morning* walk _____
3. a *kind* man ______
4. the *class* slogan ______
5. a *helpful* book ______
6. the *top* shelf ______
7. the *town* drunk ______
8. an *idle* boy ______
9. her *new* permanent ______
10. the *running* boy ______

The most common adjectival is, of course, the adjective. An examination of English sentences reveals several other kinds of adjectivals:

1. Nouns:

   a *cement* walk, a *can* opener, the *class* president
2. Verbs (This verb as modifier is conventionally called a participle):

   the *singing* robin, a *padded* cell, a *lost* cause
3. Uninflected words:

   your *last* chance, a *mere* child, the *above* items

Thus we see that the position class known as the adjectival is a *shared position*, one which may be occupied by various elements: adjectives, nouns, verbs, and uninflected words.

Just as the adjectival position may be filled by various elements besides the adjective, so the nominal positions may be filled by other elements, including adjectives. Observe the following sentence: *The rich are not always the happy*. *Rich* and *happy* belong to the form class adjective, as we can easily see by comparing them: *rich*, *richer*, *richest*, and *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*.

An important distinction is that between adjective-plus-noun and compound noun, as in *a blâck bóard* and *a bláckbòard*. This distinction is clearly indicated by stress patterns in spoken English, but is sometimes indicated only by context in written English, since the compound noun may be written as two words (the high school) or as one word (shortcake). The distinguishing structural feature is the stress pattern.

/ primary stress
\ secondary stress
∧ tertiary stress

adjective-plus-noun: a blûe bírd

compound noun: a blúebìrd

Exercise 7. Place primary, secondary, and tertiary stresses above the following phrases, using the example above as a model. After each, indicate NA (noun-plus-adjective) or CN (compound noun).

mailman ______

textbook ______

humming bird ______

hummingbird ______

paperback ______

waffle iron ______

green house ______

greenhouse ______

White House ______

white house ______

Exercise 8. After each of the following, write briefly its meaning.

râcing hórse ____________________

rácing hòrse ____________________

hígh chàir ____________________

hîgh cháir ____________________

spînning whéel ____________________

spínning whèel ____________________

fûnny bóne ____________________

fúnny bòne ____________________

Other adjective positions: Other characteristic adjective positions are as follows:

Before certain nouns (for example, plurals) that lack determinors:

She wore *red* shoes.

After linking verbs:

That doctor is *competent*.

After certain qualifiers, such as *very*. (Other common qualifiers are *quite*, *rather*, *too*, etc. These do not serve alone as adjective-determinors, since they also qualify adverbs.)

The hula hoop was once a very *popular* toy.

Thus we discover a useful positional test for adjectives. Any word that will fill the two slots in this test sentence is an adjective:

The _______(thing) seemed very _______.

Exercise 9: Underline the words in the following list that are adjectives according to this test: simple, windy, flying, likeable, same, friend, loyal, former, visible, entertaining, bent.

The test frame is especially useful in distinguishing adjectives from the verbs and nouns which frequently (a) are used as adjectivals and (b) have the same form as certain adjectives.

adjective: an *interesting* subject

verb: the *hanging* gardens

adjective: a *tardy* student

noun: the *charity* ball

Exercise 10: Label the underlined adjectivals as A (adjective), N (noun), V (verb) or UW (uninflected word), using the above test sentence.

1. the *spinning* top _____
2. the *sooty* chimney _____
3. the *broken* dish _____
4. a *china* plate _____
5. a *football* player _____
6. the *other* page _____
7. a *practical* example _____
8. a *plywood* floor _____
9. the *best* scholar _____
10. an *uninspiring* talk _____

In addition to the positions described above, adjectives occur after nouns (post-position) in these situations:

1. As part of a larger construction:
    a. Compound adjective: The trees, *tall* and *leafless*, rattled in the gale.
    b. Modified adjective: A house *larger* than ours now stood on the corner lot.
2. In certain old phrases, especially legal:

    fee *simple*

    body *politic*
3. In certain place names:

    Lake *Michigan*, River *Rouge*

Exercise 11. Insert adjectivals in the following sentences as directed:

1. (compound base adjectives) The puppy, ________________ and ________________, trembled as I held it.
2. (base adjective, derived adjective) A ________________, ________________ man suddenly appeared in the doorway.
3. (verb) The rider seemed unable to control tHe __________ horse.
4. (adjective not preceded by determiner) ________________ days are not the best kind for picnics.
5. (verb) The ________________ storm forced the holiday crowd to seek shelter.

II E. THE ADVERB

Adverbs are conventionally defined in a functional manner as "a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb." But adverbs are a miscellaneous group of words; many of them fit some of this definition, while others go beyond the definition. Further, adverbs are difficult to define because they can move around in English sentences without altering the essential meaning of the sentence.

Slowly he walked.
He *slowly* walked.
He walked *slowly*.

Thus, we cannot consistently identify adverbs by means of position.

Linguists have defined many different sub-classes of adverbs.[1] Before we discuss forms and positions, it might be well to decide just what we mean when we talk about "adverbs". There are three rather small sub-classes which we will not consider: sentence introducers (furthermore, however, nevertheless), "limiting adverbs" (just, only, even) and qualifiers (too, very, etc.). The latter word group has been treated in the discussion of adjectives and in a separate section.

Exdising these three kinds of adverbs from our description, we have a class of words which can be described as modifiers of verbs. We will note one exception to this statement, adverbs that modify nouns.

Let's first look at some of the *forms* that adverbs take. Several kinds of adverbs can modify the verb in a position immediately following it. Derived adjectives which take the derivational suffix *-ly*, as well as base adjectives which add *-ly*, can both occur in post-position:

spoke *learnedly*
waited *hopefully*
drank *deeply*
saw *clearly*

Adverbs formed by the addition of derivational prefix *a-* to nouns, verbs, and adjectives occupy the same position:

moved *ahead*
washed *adrift*
went *alone*

The same position after the verb is occupied by nouns which take the derivational suffixes *-wise* and *-ward(s)*:

---

[1] Compare C.C. Fries, *The Structure of English*, pp. 83-86, 92-94, 97-103, 132-141 and H.A. Gleason, *Linguistics and English Grammar*, pp. 129-132.

crawled crabwise
measured lengthwise
travelled forward
gazes backwards

Determiners like some, any, every, and no which combine with nouns or structure words like where are in post-position:

ran someplace
go anyway
seen everywhere
went nowhere

In this position also are the prepositional-adverbs in, on, out, up, down, over, under, inside, around:

go in
walk on
put out
run up
walk down

jump over
crawl under
go inside
look around

Finally, there is a large group of words which are heterogeneous in form and which pattern as adverbials. Many of these words are also conjunctions, and most of them are "time" modifiers. Words like the following occur frequently as adverbials:

always
still
after
seldom
even
while
often
when

there
till
here
before
then
perhaps
now

The adverbs whose positions we will now describe are of four classes. These classifications, you will notice, are based on lexical meaning.

First, let's consider the emphatic adverbs, words like always, usually certainly. These adverbs generally occur in the verb phrase in a position before the first auxiliary:

It certainly has been fun.
He usually can send three.

These adverbs follow the auxiliary verb when the adverb itself receives a primary stress:

It has cértainly been fun.

He can úsually send three.

These adverbs, then, give a sort of general emphasis to the sentence.

The next three classes of adverbs are those of time, place, and manner.

Time adverbs answer questions containing *when*:

I'm going *now*.
He went *yesterday*.
He'll be here *soon*.

Place adverbs answer questions containing where:

He's *here*.
He went *outside*.
She's *there*.

Place adverbs also modify nouns:

man *outside*
girl *upstairs*

Manner adverbs answer questions containing *how*:

He ran *quickly*.
She did it *nicely*.
He reads *slowly*.

Exercise 1.

Write the following sentence on a piece of paper:

The boys often ran home quickly.

Leave plenty of room between the words. Now substitute as many words as you can for the adverbs of time, place, and manner. This will give you lists of the three kinds of adverbs.

Example:	The boys	often	ran	home	quickly.
		usually		away	angrily

Positions of Adverbs

Some of the adverbials we have been looking at can appear in three positions in complex verb phrases: before the verb, between the auxiliary and the verb, and between two auxiliaries. Most frequently, adverbs filling these positions are those marked by the derivational suffix *-ly*.

Adverbs of time fill these three positions

still moved
has *always* won
has *seldom* been seen

When time and manner adverbs occur simultaneously in pre-position, the time adverb comes first:

sometimes *quietly* talked

When they follow the verb, this order is reversed:

talked quietly *sometimes*

If a verb is modified by adverbs of place, manner, and time, the modifiers are usually in post-position in that order:

came *in* *noisily* *yesterday*

Some of the adverbs formed by a determiner like *some* plus a noun or function word fill these positions. This is especially true of those forms beginning with *some*:

somehow moved
has *sometimes* run
has *sometimes* been seen.

Exercise 2.

a. Adverbs formed by the addition of derivational prefix *a-* to nouns, verbs, and adjectives usually occur after the verb.

b. If a verb is modified by adverbs of place, manner, and time, the modifiers are usually in post-position in that order.

c. Nouns which take the derivational suffixes -*wise*, and -*ward(s)* come after the verb.

d. Time adverbials follow manner adverbs when both come after the verb.

e. Adverbs formed by determiner plus noun or function word come after the verb.

f. Adverbs with derivational suffix -*ly* frequently fill any one of three positions relative to verbs.

g. Prepositional-adverbs come after the verb.

h. Time adverbs precede manner adverbs when both come before verbs.

After each of the following sentences write the letter denoting the rule above which is followed or violated. Mark violations with V.

1. He ahead walked to the party. __________
2. She sentimentally sang. __________
3. He drove always fast. __________
4. John sometimes loudly whispers his answer. __________
5. The lizard crawled forward. __________
6. Cats scream loud sometimes. __________
7. Mary went back hastily this morning. __________
8. Did you fly over Milwaukee? __________
9. I think he anyway went __________
10. They quickly always leave after the party. __________
11. I flew around the clouds. __________
12. Mike ran then in quickly. __________
13. He lengthwise walked the plot of land. __________
14. Jim has markedly improved his grades. __________

II F. The Conjunction, Subordinator, and Sentence Connector

Conjunctions (traditionally called "coordinating conjunctions") make up a small but essential group of structure words. They are used to connect grammatical equivalents--either whole sentence patterns or parts of patterns--thus making possible the compounding of sentences and of elements within sentences.

And, *but*, *or*, *nor*, and *for* are words often occurring as conjunctions. The examples below indicate various grammatical equivalents which conjunctions can connect.

Form classes:

nouns. . . . . . The radio and the television were playing at full volume.

verbs . . . . . The baby just sat and watched.

adjectives . . . A young but confident mechanic worked on the motor.

adverbs . . . . The manager laughed loudly but nervously.

Position classes:

nominals . . . . On that day the haves or the have-nots will revise their belief.

verbals . . . . The baby just sat and watched.

adjectivals . . An inmate, energyless but filled with zeal, tried to lift the visitor's handbag.

adverbials . . . He spoke quietly but with great effect.

Structure words:

noun determiners . . . Each and every shoe was polished.

auxiliaries . . . . . He can and should and will contribute to the discussion.

subordinators . . . . If and when she arrives, I shall greet her.

Grammatical structures:

clauses . . . . .Where he will go or what he will say is his own business.

infinitive phrases . .He is studying hard so as to learn all he can and to win a scholarship.

Sentence patterns:

He wasn't interested in that game, for the championship had been won a week earlier.

The dishes weren't washed, nor was the kitchen floor swept.

PUNCTUATION NOTE: Conjunctions between words and phrases and grammatically subordinate clauses normally have no punctuation accompanying them. BUT CONJUNCTIONS CONNECTING INDEPENDENT SENTENCE PATTERNS ARE ALWAYS PRECEDED BY COMMAS.

Dogs and cats howled and scratched all through the day and long into the night. (No commas)

The women wept, and the children screamed.

EXERCISE 1

These five conjunctions (and, but, or, nor, for) have widely different ranges of occurrence. All of them can connect whole sentence patterns; but for connects nothing more, whereas and also connects words and phrases of various descriptions.

A. In the space before each number, indicate which of these conjunctions make good English sense in each sentence blank. If a comma is needed, place it before the conjunction.

____________ 1. Jack _____Jill went up the hill.

____________ 2. He pulled weeds in the garden_____ painted the garage all afternoon.

____________ 3. A short _____swift sprinter won the event.

____________ 4. The milk was warm______the bottle had been standing in the sun.

____________ 5. The windows were open_______the doors were shut.

____________ 6. All the men on the platform were old_________famous.

____________ 7. The shades were drawn________the fans were running.

B. How many times could you use each conjunction?

and ________
or ________
but ________
nor ________
for ________

SENTENCE CONNECTORS

Two other groups of structure words supplement conjunctions in combining sentence patterns. Since they share a position with conjunctions and are sometimes confused with conjunctions, differences between the three word groups will be examined here. One group, containing subordinators like because and when and if, we shall look at later. But our first concern will be that group (traditionally named "conjunctive adverbs" or "adverbial conjunctions") which contains words like however, therefore, consequently, and nevertheless. For this group (as, indeed, for the other two groups as well) we shall adopt one of Paul Roberts' terms--in this case SENTENCE CONNECTORS since that term emphasizes the actual function of the group and properly distinguishes the words in it from conjunctions and from adverbs.

It is important for a writer to be able to distinguish conjunctions from sentence connectors because punctuation conventions affecting those word groups differ. Failure to keep the groups apart can cause "comma-splices" or "run-on sentence" errors.

Following are some examples of sentence connectors. Note that a semicolon precedes each one.

1. The drummer agreed to do another number; however, we had to leave.

2. " " " ; therefore,

3. " " " ; consequently,

4. " " " ; nevertheless,

Various prepositional phrases function exactly like these sentence connectors and could be classified with them. Examples are *as a result*, *in consequence*, and *for this reason* (all of which can be inserted in the example sentence above) and *in addition* (which will fit in the sentence following).

5. The storm battered the pier; furthermore our motorboat could easily have sunk.
6. " " ; indeed
7. " " ; thus
8. " " ; therefore
9. " ; hence
10. " ; moreover
11. " ; also

The sentence connectors in all the examples above occur in a position shared with conjunctions--i.e., between sentence patterns. But the dissimilarity between these two word groups becomes apparent when we compare their mobility.

Note that the sentence connectors in the previous examples move easily to the end of the second pattern or to any one of various positions inside the second pattern.

1. The drummer agreed to do another number; we had to leave, however.
2. " " ; we, however, had to leave.
3. " " ; we had to leave, consequently.
4. " " ; we, consequently, had to leave.
5. " " ; we had, consequently, to leave.
6. The storm battered the pier; our motorboat could easily have sunk also.
7. " " ; our motorboat, also, could easily have sunk.
8. " " ; our motorboat could also easily have sunk.
9. " " ; our motorboat could easily have sunk, therefore.

10. The storm battered the pier; our motorboat, therefore, could easily have sunk.

11. " " ; our motorboat could, therefore, easily have sunk.

In contrast, conjunctions are immovable: they must remain between the patterns.

1. The drummer agreed to do another number, but we had to leave.
   (No alternative position for *but*)

2. The storm battered the pier, and our motorboat could easily have sunk.
   (No alternative position for *and*)

PUNCTUATION NOTE: A semicolon (or a period)--NOT JUST A COMMA*--must stand between the two patterns joined by a sentence connector.

EXERCISE 2. Using the mobility test, decide whether the pattern joiners underlined in the sentences below are conjunctions or sentence connectors. In the blank, label the joiner a C or an SC, and put the appropriate punctuation mark in front of your symbol. Be prepared to justify your decisions.

Example:

,C a. The crystal was smashed *but* my watch was still running.

;SC b. " *however*

____ 1. That lawn will be mowed by noon *or* I'll do it myself!

____ 2. He broke his wrist in the pre-season practice *consequently* he wasn't a candidate for the all-conference team.

____ 3. He deserted his post *furthermore* he fell asleep.

____ 4. He saw the train *but* he did not stop.

____ 5. " " *however*

____ 6. " " *yet*

____ 7. His date had stood him up *therefore* he went home.

____ 8. " " *so*

9______ 9. The song had ended *but* the melody lingered on.

______10. " " *however*

______11. " " *still*

______12. The game was exciting *hence* the crowd ignored the rain.

______13. The rain had stopped *but* by then our team was hopelessly behind.

______14. The man had no horse *thus* the kingdom was lost.

______15. I found my key *as a result* I turned off the flashlight.

______16. " " *so*

A second way to distinguish sentence connectors and conjunctions in the shared position is to listen to the intonation contour characteristic of each word group. Read the following pairs aloud, noticing particularly the intonation where the sentence patterns are joined. Try to speak them normally.

1. He smokes cigars however he doesn't drink.
2. " " " but
3. The book was covered with dust and the radio was on.
4. " " furthermore

Sentence connectors in the shared position are regularly preceded by the high-low sentence final contour and are themselves stressed. In contrast, conjunctions are normally unstressed, and they have a level intonation contour before them. A conjunction can (of course) have a high-low sentence final contour before it. Writers often begin a sentence with a conjunction, and the high-low contour obviously precedes it in these cases. But characteristically the conjunction participates in a level contour: and this characteristic, then, becomes another means of distinguishing conjunctions from sentence connectors.

EXERCISE 3. (Number from 1 - 16)

A. Use the intonation test on the sentences in exercise 2. If a sentence can be read naturally with a level tone preceding the joiner and with the joiner unstressed, mark the joiner as a C. If it is stressed and preceded by a high-low contour, indicate SC. Punctuate.

B. As you applied the intonation test, did you come to the same conclusion regarding each joiner that you did earlier when using the mobility test?

C. Which of the sentence connectors seemed to need commas (in addition to the required semicolon)?

SUBORDINATORS

We return now to SUBORDINATORS of the because type (traditionally, "subordinating conjunctions"). While, after, where, and if are other common members of this group. These words can subordinate one whole sentence pattern to another. For example, if we begin with two independent statements--"I want to go swimming. It is too hot to study."--and then insert a because between them and make the necessary changes in punctuation and capitalization, we end with one sentence in which the second of our original statements is now grammatically subordinate to the first.

I want to go swimming because it is too hot to study.

The following sentences illustrate the same principle.

1. A robin chirped excitedly while I put the lawn mower away.
2. I will get the cough drops if I go past the drugstore.
3. He ate a pizza before we went out golfing.

In all these sentences, the subordinator occurs in that position we have already seen shared by conjunctions and sentence connectors; that is, between sentence patterns. Like the conjunction, the subordinator is unable to move into or to the end of the second pattern. We do not say, "I will go you will come if" nor "I will go you if will come." In this respect the subordinator is as inflexible as the conjunction. However, the subordinator can do something that neither the conjunction nor the sentence connector can: it can take the pattern it has subordinated and move it to the beginning of the sentence—and sometimes into the middle of the other sentence pattern. For example, all of the following are possible phrasing:

The butcher tore down the slaughter house after his wife died.

After his wife died, the butcher...

The butcher, after his wife died, tore down...

PUNCTUATION NOTE: In the shared position, a subordinator requires no internal punctuation. But when the subordinated clause is moved to the front of the sentence or into the middle of the first pattern, commas are used to set it off from the rest of the sentence. See the examples above.

We have been working in these pages with 8 conjunctions (5 plus yet, so, and still)[1] and with larger numbers of sentence connectors and subordinators.

EXERCISE 4. Write original illustrations of the sentence types studied. Watch your punctuation.

EXERCISE 5. Construct sentences in which you use the following words as pattern joiners: until, nevertheless, but, in addition, nor, etc.

---

[1] Certain conjunctions (not discussed in the preceding pages) can connect only words or phrases, not entire sentence patterns. In sentences involving comparisons, as and than occur regularly as conjunctions: sweet as honey , hungry as a bear, higher than a kite. Not functions often as a connector of words or phrases:

Her brother, not her mother, won the baking contest.

He wants to serve his country, not just make a name for himself.

Like all conjunctions, not leaves the grammatical case of a pronoun unaffected:

He, not she, cut a finger in the lathe.

II G. Pronouns

Pronouns include a mixed group of words which share, variously, some of the features and functions of nouns and which, of course, display some differences. Pronouns are classified according to their distinctive features and functions. For instance, personal pronouns are distinguished by forms showing first, second, and third persons (since nouns and most other pronouns occur only in "third") and by forms showing gender and case: See table:

Number	Person	Gender	Case				
			Subjective (Nominative)	Objective	First Possessive	Substitute Possessive	Intensive & Reflexive
Sing.	First		I	me	my	mine	myself
	Second		you	you	your	yours	yourself
	Third	Masc.	he	him	his	his	himself
		Fem.	she	her	hers	hers	herself
		Neither	it	it	its	its	itself
Plural	First		we	us	our	ours	ourselves
	Second		you	you	your	yours	yourselves
	Third		they	them	their	theirs	themselves

Exercise: Fill in the analogous form:

doll dolls	he	doll doll's	I	doll dolls'	_____ theirs

Exercise: In which of the following noun positions will forms from subjective case fit? (This exercise may be given with test frames from noun section rather than by listing.)

- Subject of verb
- Object of verb
- Subjective complement
- Appositive to subject
- Appositive to object of verb
- Object of preposition
- Subject of infinitive
- Retained object
- First position, absolute phrase

Case inflections, which once were the essence of English grammar, are now often redundant. Other grammatical signals, word order in general and the often immediate juxtaposition of preposition-pronoun, verb-pronoun, etc., are stronger "carriers of grammar" than is case form. Probably intonation is also stronger. Although it might seem logical, therefore, to do without case forms, most of you take great care to be correct in their use. Accordingly, we will study only those instances which are inconsistent with the use of case we have agreed is correct.

Exercise: Compare case forms in the following groups, change forms where necessary, and justify each use.

1 A. Let'*s* go to town.
B. Let Charley and *I* go.
C. Let *me* go.

2 A. The present is for Bob and *I*.
B. The present is just for *me*.
C. Between you and *I* there is no argument.

3 A. Let's you and *I* leave town.
B. Shall we, just you and *me*, do the dishes?
C. Who should go, *me*?

4 A. Mother, get the neighbor kids and *I* a drink, please.
B. Please send *me* a note.
C. Telling Charley and *he* stories is fun.

5 A. Those big kids slaughtered Charley and *me*.
B. The only ones here were Charley and *I*.
C. They elected Charley and *I* co-captains.

Gender

Gender, a common formal characteristic of many Indo-European languages, is largely confined in modern English to inflections of some personal pronouns and a very few nouns. Where many languages categorize nouns as masculine, feminine, or neuter by a largely undisclosed logic, English identifies gender mainly with biological sex (or its lack) or by pragmatic or poetic associations. The same dog may be a *he* to those who associate maleness with aggressiveness, a *she* according to biology, and an *it* when a nuisance.

Discussion:

1. There is no gender distinction in plural pronouns, Do we need such a form? Make one up. How do we compensate for this lack?
2. Once English had a special form to mean "we two." We seem to need the word both, or do we? Should we bring back we-two?
3. Does the expression "you-all" make a useful distinction? Do you ever hear "we-all" or "they all"?
4. Point out how noun plurals differ from personal pronoun plurals.

Intensive Pronouns

Use of an intensive pronoun in careful English is restricted to reinforcement of a subjective or objective form of the same person and number appearing with it:

Appositive: I, myself, will go.
I want to see the boss himself.

Pre-positioned: Myself, I don't care.
Postponed: I want to do it myself.

Resist the false modesty of "My brother and myself painted our house."

Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns replace some objective and subjective forms in those positions which call for the same referent as that of the expressed or implied subject. They take the following nominal positions:

Object of Verb: He hates himself when he does that.
Subject Complement: You don't seem yourself today.
Indirect Object: They sent themselves poison pen letters.
Object of Preposition: I talk to myself.
Object of Gerund: Hating yourself won't help.
Object of Infinitive: His first mistake was to represent himself.

Impersonal Pronouns

Some forms which appear identical with personal pronouns actually have different referents and different uses:

		Case		
Subj.	Obj.	First Poss.	Sub. Poss.	Intensive & Reflexive
you	you	your	yours	yourself
it	it	its	its	itself
one	one	one's		
		his	his	himself
they	them	their	theirs	themselves

Exercise: Study these pairs of sentences and explain the differences in the use of the pronouns.

1. A. My parents will take *their* vacation in July, *they* think.
   B. *They* don't make cars the way *they* used to.

2. A. Please give me *your* papers as soon as *you* can.
   B. *You* never can tell how *you*'ll perform till *you* try.

3. A. Which *one* of you is called Rod?
   B. *One* should never leave *his* door unlocked.

4. A. Here is my book; be careful of *it*.
   B. Oh, is *it* raining again?
   C. *It* is a pleasure to be here today.
   D. *It* seems as if today will never end.

Demonstrative Pronouns

The two forms, *this* and *that*, allow the speaker to distinguish relative closeness--physical, temporal, or psychological:

This section (performance, feeling) was better than that.

Both have plural forms (*this*, *these*; *that*, *those*) which agree in determiner positions with their nouns, or in noun positions with antecedents:

These sections were better than *those*.

This and *that* have some power to refer to past and future utterances:

Why, I didn't know *that*.
This is what I mean:

However, this use often results in vagueness or ambiguity.

Compare: *This* often results in vagueness.
This is similar for ambiguity.

Exercise: Show four means of gaining particularity for the following vague sentences--a clear antecedent, a specifying noun, an included clause or an adverb clause:

1. They took out my tonsils but didn't give me any ice cream. That was a dirty trick.
2. The French did not care to remain under the threat of attack. This was the real cause of the Franco-Prussian war.
3. Smokey the Bear can hardly watch all of the forests at once: YOU have to help. This is the only way to keep our country green.
4. There are occasions which call for extraordinary measures to prevent a disaster. This is what I call a wonderful opportunity.
5. You may believe that competence is restricted to officers. That won't get you anywhere in the army.

Indefinite Pronouns

Other words which readily shift position (like this and that) from noun-determiner to noun are often classed as pronouns. Significantly, their lexical meaning is highly abstract and their ability to replace complete classes of nouns is great. They can be classified by formal characteristics:

Singular only, no determiners	Singular only, no det. ('-s)	Plural only (the)	Plural only, no det.
much	either	few	both
	neither	many	several
	each		
	another		

Students: Demonstrate determiner and noun position use for these words.

Countable & mass
take determiner

all
any
enough
more
none
some

Students: Review countable & mass; use these words both ways.

Another group of words, which take all noun inflections and determiners, is often included because of the characteristic of functional shift from determiner to noun position, and high-abstractness, high-replaciveness: lot of, half, other, one, two, three....

Another group of noun-type words does not show the characteristic functional shift because the noun determiner has amalgamated with the general noun. These too are often called pronouns:

All noun inflections take some determiner.	('-s) only
somebody	anybody
nobody	everybody
something	everything
nothing	anyone
	everyone
	someone
	no one

Note: Indefinite pronouns and agreement

The philosophy underlying the relationship of the individual and the group is perhaps undergoing change. We readily consider the many massed together, indistinguishable from one another:

All are here.

The group acting as one, in utter conformity:

The army is advancing slowly.

But the notion of an individual free to act within the group is in danger of being lost:

Everybody in town has the right to their own opinion.
Everybody in town has the right to his own opinion.

Strike a blow for individual freedom!

Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns have two parallel declensions which occur in complementary distribution. Both have forms whidh show gender, number, and person. First possessive forms take only determiner positions:

The school is big.

My school is big.

Your old green apron is torn.

Substitutional forms take all noun positions except pre-possessive or pre-nominal. For instance:

SV Your class is slow; mine is fast.

IO OP I'll tell mine to slow down for yours.

Compare to possessive nouns:

Charley's hat is Charley's.

Her hat is hers.

Native speakers have no trouble with possessive forms except for rare dialect equivalents: yourn, hisn.

"Possessive before Gerund"

If students are bound by over-simplified rules such as"possessive before gerund", which is not followed by anybody, they are as likely to put possessive forms before participles as before gerunds. However, case does sometimes resolve ambiguity. Perhaps students could see how intonation resolves ambiguity in speech but not in writing:

I don't like the teacher lecturing all the time.
He shouldn't criticize me chewing gum.
We should eliminate him singing off-key.

In writing, the rule, "possessive before gerund," is too faulty to follow without great qualification:

a. Personal pronouns and words standing for persons, possessive:

His delivering of the speech was masterly.
She disliked her mother's blathering.

b. A plural noun is likely to be in common form.

Does the teacher approve of students cheating on tests?
We discourage teachers striking.

c. A plural pronoun is less often possessive than the singular, except in SV position.

> Their whispering is a nuisance. (Never *them*)
> I can't approve of (them / their) whispering all the time. (either)

d. If the "subject of the gerund" is abstract or the name of an inanimate object, the common noun is usual; the possessive is sometimes necessary for clarity, however.

> It was a matter of logic denying experience.
> Were you frightened by the window breaking?
> The window's breaking set off a chain of events.
> (Compare "the window breaking, compound noun)

e. When the "subject of the gerund" is separated from the gerund, the common form is required:

> The philosophy of the department being written down did not change my practices.
> I don't like either of them getting away with it.

f. *That* as subject is ordinarily in the common form:

> I don't believe in that coming true.

g. When the subject is stressed, the common form is preferred:

> Have you read about Jack Benny turning forty?
> *Him* getting a passing grade surprised the teacher.

Relative Pronouns and Interrogative Pronouns

Besides their substantive function, relative pronouns mark conjunction and subordination, and interrogative pronouns mark questions.

Though relative and interrogative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* do not inflect for gender or number, they can serve as a kind of relay station to pass on a demand for inflectional consistency (agreement).

> The girl who loses her wig has a hair-raising experience.
>
> These are times which try men's souls.
>
> See those marks. What are they?

Case inflection appears only in the somewhat limited adherence to objective who(m). Identity of case with position has become so strong that front position (required to mark question or included clause) calls for who and the fact that the form does not follow verb or preposition calls for who, or fails to call for whom. However, demonstrating that case is inessential to understanding is not the same as saying that it should be ignored.

Who to?

Who do you mean?

I don't know who to give it to.

who to ask.

who we need.

Though these forms may sound natural to us, most writing for school and publication requires correctness in who-whom choice. Students should unravel the transformations above until position clarifies case. Thereafter, a rule-of-thumb approach is likely to serve better: Identify each finite verb in the included clause. If there is no other subject apparent, probably who is correct. In all other cases, write whom.

Note: Subjective forms end in vowel: I, he, she, they, who.

Objective forms end in consonant: him, her, them, whom.
Exception: me

Relative pronouns can join sentences which share a nominal. The second or constituent sentence is embedded in apposition to the nominal in the first or matrix sentence; if necessary, a transformation moves the nominal constituent sentence to its sentence initial position; then the appropriate relative pronoun replaces the nominal. Whether the constituent sentence serves as an identifying, adjective modifier of the nominal in the matrix sentence or as a sentence modifier depends upon the context and is signaled by intonation.

Subjective Nominal in constituent sentence:

There is the man (the man left his raincoat).
There is the man who left his raincoat.
He (he left his raincoat) will be sorry.
He who left his raincoat will be sorry.
Whoever left his raincoat will be sorry.

Social distance: I know the boy (the boy left).
I know the boy that left.
Social closeness: I know the boy (the boy left).
I know the boy who left.
Substandard: I know the boy what left. I know the boy which left.

Objective Nominal in constituent:

I know the boy (you mean the boy).
I know the boy (the boy you mean).
I know the boy who(m) you mean.
I know the boy that you mean.
I know the boy you mean. (Common form)

I know the boy (you're referring to the boy).
I know the boy (to the boy you're referring) (the boy you're referring to).
I know the boy...to whom you're referring... who(m) you're referring to.
I know the boy you're referring to.

Possessive Nominal in constituent:

People: See the girl (the girl's hair is disheveled).
See the girl whose hair is disheveled.

Formal for objects (rare): See the truck (the wheels of the truck are wobbling).
See the truck (of the truck the wheels are wobbling).
See the truck of which the wheels are wobbling.
See the truck the wheels of which are wobbling.

Common for objects: See the truck (the wheels of the truck are wobbling).
See the truck (the truck's wheels are wobbling).
See the truck whose wheels are wobbling.

Exercise:

1. For each underlined Nominal compose a matrix sentence within which the given sentence may be embedded.

2. For each underlined Nominal compose a constituent sentence and embed it in these sentences.

A. My aunt married a corporal.
B. The tractor ran into the field and across the road.
C. Strangers like swimming in the river.

Relative and Interrogative

He saw this: He saw what happened.	What happened?
It was unclear. It was unclear what happened. What happened was unclear.	What happened?
We wondered this: We wondered who(m) we could ask. We wondered who(m) to ask.	Who(m) can we ask?
We wondered this: We wondered whoever could have done it.	Whoever could have done it?
I knew this: I knew which boy to select.	Which boy should I select?
I wonder this: I wonder what time it is.	What time is it?

What suggests an open or indefinite choice; which, a limited or definite one. This distinction is sometimes overlooked:

I didn't know this: I didn't know what road to take.	What road whould I take?
I didn't know this:	Which road should I take?
I know this: I know whose book it is.	Whose book is it?

The preceding material assumes a basic knowledge of transformational grammar.

II H. THE QUALIFIER

Qualifiers are structure words, as are verb auxiliaries, prepositions, and determiners. They form a *position class*, appearing before adjectives and adverbs. Gleason subdivides qualifiers by specifying *intensifiers* and *limiters*. Intensifiers modify adjectives or adverbs. Since they do not modify verbs, they may help to distinguish adjectives from participles:

He is (very) interesting. He is (very) walking.

Clearly, *walking* is a participle, a verb form, and *interesting* is an adjective. Limiters modify phrases of all kinds, including noun phrases:

Only his first model ever worked properly. (*Only* modifies *his first model*.)

Only John was at home. (*Only* modifies *John* -- a one-word phrase.)

I think it must have been the man downstairs--only he would do that.

(*Only* modifies *he*, a pronoun substituting for the noun phrase *the man downstairs*.)

Only in Los Angeles do they drive like that.

(*Only* modifies the prepositional phrase *in Los Angeles*.)

The bus runs only occasionally. (*Only* modifies the adverb *occasionally*--to be considered a one-word phrase, since it parallels multiword phrases: *on holidays*, *Sunday afternoons*)

Most qualifiers are uninflected: very, quite, rather.

Some adjective + *ly* forms are qualifiers only when in qualifier position:

The play was fairly long. (qualifier)
He acted fairly. (adverb)

Some qualifiers have limited distribution:

bright red *boiling* hot *fighting* mad *almost* ready

Some noun clusters and idiomatic expressions may occupy qualifier position before adjectivals and adverbials:

a lot a great deal a little
kind of sort of a bit

Some qualifiers appear before positive degree: *very* good; and others appear before comparative degree: *much* better.

Exercise 1:

Distinguish *qualifiers* from adjectival, adverbials, and nominals:

It was the *most* fun.
It was the *most* beautiful.
What a *pretty* girl
That was *pretty* silly.
Only the first one|is ready.
He caught *only* one fish.
Clean out the garage.
The hardware is *clean* out of screws.
That good man is studying linguistics.
It is not *that* good.

She is coming *too*.
She is *too* late.
The food was *extremely* good.
He wanders *extremely*.
The caterpillar is *dead*.
You are *dead* right.
Turn *right* now at the corner.
Do it *right* now!
He studies *a lot* of phonemes.
He bought *a lot* in town.

III. TEACHING MATERIAL

A. Diagnostic Test: Parts of Speech

1. Adjective
2. Adverb
3. Conjunction
4. Interjection
5. Noun
6. Pronoun
7. Preposition
8. Verb
9. Qualifier

Identify the parts of speech in the following sentences by placing over each word the underlined part from the above list.

Adv V
Example: Quickly return

C P N N V V Prep P Q A
When checking that library paper, mark down for his very poor

N C N I P V C V V
spelling and grammar. Yeech! Many thought that there could have

V A N Prep A N Adv V P Adv V A
been no time for a check-up before. Would they ever be careful

Adv P
enough to check that?

In the next part, identify only the underlined, made-up word in each phrase or sentence:

N A V N
the blang very blang people blanged him blangs'

A N Adv N N
the blanger one in blang blangally Blangness blangnik

V
Don't blang him again.

N
Blang makes strong teeth.

A
Spinach is blang for you.

N
There's blang all over.

N
Everybody likes blang.

V
Clouds blang.

Comment on Parts of Speech Diagnostic Test:

Checking is best marked Verb; Adjective may be a popular response. Confusion is likely.

that Is it a Pronoun or an Adjective? See Determiner.

library is a Noun, whether thought of as a modifier or part of a compound.

down is part of a separable verb.

his Usually possessive Pronoun. Hardly an Adjective. See determiner

very Adverb, but see qualifier

spelling not a gerund, actually

there Adverb, maybe. Expletive?

no Adjective, maybe. See Determiner

a Adjective, maybe. See Determiner

check-up With or without hyphen, a Noun.

before Adverb; not Preposition.

enough

to check Verb or what?

that Pronoun, without doubt

III B. Introduction to Morphemics: One-day Lesson Plan

The *form* results from phonemes combined into meaningful units. These units are called *morphs*, meaning "forms." Some simple single morphs or meaningful units of sound are boy /bɔiy/, law /lɔ/, cat /kæt/, laugh /læf/ or /laf/.

Note that the removal of a phoneme from the morph destroys the morph or meaningful unit of sound. Here the teacher may want to use an analogy to the chemical forms--H_2O=water, something different from the component elements in isolation.

A. Speak and listen

1. Teacher says several single morphs in isolation and leads students to see that they are meaningful units of phonemes which cannot be subdivided without destroying their basic meaning.
    a. Teacher writes: /r/ + /ey/ = {ray} /w/ + /i/ + /n/ = {win}
    This visualizes the hearing process.
    b. Two or three students at the board write the morphs in columns separating the parts of speech: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition. A simple workable list is: run, star, on, with, full, no, crumb, grab, dance, opera, work, more, like.
    c. Teacher adds morphs to form new words, and often, new parts of speech: runner, starred, upon, withhold, sorrowful, nothing, crumby, crumble, grabbing, danced, operatic, homework, likeness.
2. Draw several generalizations including:
    a. Morphs added to morphs create new meanings and new relationships.
    b. Parts of speech cannot depend primarily upon meaning.
    c. Some morphs can stand alone, are *unbound*, and others are *bound*.

B. Bound morphs

1. Isolate all the single morphs in the list on the board. Put in one column the unbound or *free* morphs and in another column the bound morphs. Now subdivide the bound morphs, placing those commonly used with verbs to tell time in one column, and the others in another column.

2. Isolate the single morphs in the following statements:

   a. I chase a rat. I am chasing a rat. A rat is chased by me.

      I chased rats. I have chased some rats. Some rats have been chased by me.

   b. Ellen closes the door. Ellen is closing the door.

      The door is being closed by Ellen.

      Ellen has closed the door. Ellen had closed the door.

      Ellen has been closing the door. The door is closed by Ellen.

      The door was closed by Ellen. The door has been closed by Ellen.

      The door had been closed by Ellen.

      Doors are always being closed by Ellen. Ellen closes doors.

3. Generalize that the bound morphs in the above sentences are different from such bound morphs as *atic* in operatic and *ness* in likeness. The latter are called *derivational suffixes* and the former are called *inflectional suffixes*.

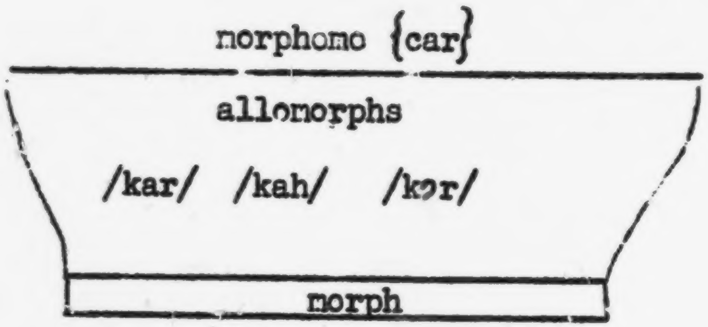
C. Refine vocabulary

"Morph" = "form", the result of combining phonemes into meaningful units.

"Allomorph" = "other" + "form", all the recognizable variations of a morph.

"Morpheme" = a general or generic term meaning all the recognizable
variations of a single MORPH, that is, the ALLOMORPHS.

Illustration (on board):



MORPHEMICS is the study of morphs and their variations (allomorphs) in living speech.

MORPHOLOGY is the study of the structures of words including inflection, derivation, and compounding.

The teacher should teach the infix: see saw; man men

The teacher may want to point out that the suprasegmental phonemes help to *form* morphs in statements; they help to *form* the statements. Further, their influence makes even a morph composed of a single phoneme a *complex form* in context.

Example: I am hére. I ám here. Í am here.

student sheet

Introduction to MORPHEMICS

VOCABULARY

Phone is.....

Allophone is.....

Phoneme is.....

Illustration:

Morph is.....

Examples: (single morphs)   Nouns   Verbs   Adjectives   Adverbs   Prepositions

Derivations: Nouns   Verbs   Adjectives   Adverbs   Prepositions

Bound morphs:........

Unbound morphs:.......

Isolate the morphs in the sentence: I see a rat ______________________________

I saw a rat______________________________

I saw some rats ________________________

Bound morphs are of two kinds: ____________________ and ____________________.

Unbound morphs may combine in a _________________________, distinguished by the intonational pattern ....

Morpheme illustration:

Morphemics is ....

Morphology is ....

TEST

Analyze the following sentence:

When the bugler blows the mess call, the hungry recruits respond with alacrity.

1. List the structure or function words.
2. List the form class words according to the class in which they belong.
    a. ______________________(name form class)
    b. ______________________
    c. ______________________
    d. ______________________
3. List the bases of the form class words.

4. List the free forms.
5. List the bound forms.
6. List the prefixes.
7. List the suffixes.
8. List the derivational suffixes.
9. List the inflectional suffixes.

10. Define a word.

III C.

WHAT IS A WORD? INTRODUCTORY UNIT TO VOCABULARY STUDY.

The specific plan of this unit is to introduce vocabulary study in Orgel and Works' *Building Word Power* (Oxford:), which contains a great deal of material on word origins, bases, etc. However, the unit could easily be used without this text. The terms introduced in the unit are as follows:

structure word
form class word
base
affix, prefix, suffix
inflectional suffix, derivational suffix
free form, bound form

I. Examine a sentence from Lesson 1 of *Building Word Power*. Pick out words that contain lexical meaning and those that contain structural (grammatical, relational) meaning only. Examine the words that have lexical meaning, picking out bases, prefixes, and suffixes.

Example:

The speaker declared that the town officials, by failing to provide sufficient playgrounds, abet juvenile delinquency.

A. Which words contain lexical meaning? In other words, which ones do not simply show grammatical relationship, but have definite reference to some clear idea in the real world and contain the basic concepts of the sentence? (speaker, declared, town, officials, failing, provide, sufficient, playgrounds, abet, juvenile, delinquency)

B. Which words do not contain lexical meaning? (the, that, the, by, to) Notice that the chief function of these words is to show grammatical relationship, or structural relationship, in the sentence. These words therefore are called *structure* words.

C. We see, then, that there are two kinds of words, and we are going to say much more about both these kinds later. But before we do, let's continue to look at the words of this sentence in order to answer the question WHAT IS A WORD?

D. If we examine the words that contain lexical meaning, we soon discover that many of them can be broken into still smaller parts, and that each of these parts has its own meaning. (Examine with the class each of the form class words. Have students pick out first the element that contains the basic meaning, the *base* of the word.)

After we have isolated the base of each word, what elements are left over? (prefixes and suffixes) An element that is fastened to a base is called an *affix*, a word that includes both prefixes and suffixes. (Note: prefix *a-* means *to*)

E. Although you will not know the meaning of every affix, you can no doubt recognize some. Discuss these:

Prefixes:
declare consists of *de-* (completely) plus *clare* (to make clear)
abet consists of *a-* (to) plus *bet* (to tease, bait)
delinquency consists of *de-* (down, away) plus *linquency* (to leave)

Suffixes:
-er means *one who*
-ed means past tense verb form
-s means plural noun
-ing means present tense verb form
-ent means having the quality of
~~*-s* means plural noun~~
~~*-ile* means adjective suffix~~
-y means quality or state of being

F. Now we will go one step further in answering the question WHAT IS A WORD? Among the above suffixes, there are two kinds. Among the many suffixes in the English language, there is a small but very frequently used group whose purpose is to indicate grammatical relationships. These are called *inflectional suffixes*. In the sentence we are examining, there are inflectional suffixes that show grammatical features of tense and number. What are they? (-ed, -s, -ing, -s) The rest of the suffixes in this sentence are *derivational suffixes*.

G. Because of the existence of the inflectional suffixes, it is possible to classify the lexical words into groups called *form classes*. We shall see later that this fact will help us to understand more fully the idea of parts of speech by adding another part to our definition. Right now, notice that there are four form classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. At one time in the history of the English language there were hundreds of inflectional endings that were used with those four form classes; but this aspect of our language has been greatly simplified, so that today there are only seven.

We have already identified *-ed* as an inflectional ending. To what part of speech does it belong? The verb is the most highly inflected of the parts of speech. What other endings does it have? (*-ing*, *-s*) What are the inflectional endings that nouns take? Adjectives and adverbs have the same two inflections. What are they? Place a summary of inflections on the board, as follows:

Verbs	*Nouns*	*Adjectives and Adverbs*
-s (3rd sing.)	-s (pl.)	-er (comparative)
-ing (pres. Part)	-'s (poss.)	-est (superlative)
-ed (past Part.)		

H. We have seen that while there are many suffixes, there are only seven inflectional suffixes, all the rest being derivational. Here are some ways you can distinguish between derivational and inflectional suffixes:

(1) Inflectional suffixes never change the part of speech of a word to which they are added: *walk*, *walks*, *walking*, and *walked* are all verbs; *boy*, *boys* and *boy's* are all nouns; *long*, *longer*, *longest* are all adjectives.

Derivational suffixes frequently do change the part of speech of a word:

Example: declare (verb)

How many suffixes can you think of to add to this word? Which ones change its part of speech? (*declares*, *declared*, *declaring* are verbs; *declaration* is a noun; *declarative* is an adjective)

(2) Inflectional suffixes come last in a word. Derivational suffixes do not have to come last; they may be followed by either inflectional suffixes, derivational suffixes, or both. (See *declare* to illustrate. *declaration* can become *declarations*, but nothing more may be added.)

(3) Inflectional suffixes do not pile up. Only one ends a word. Example: provides, provided, providing. But derivational suffixes may pile up: providence, providential, providentially, etc.

(4) There are only seven inflectional suffixes in Modern English; there are hundreds of derivational suffixes.

I. We have noticed some important facts about inflectional suffixes Now we may discover something about derivational suffixes. Refer to sentence: From *speak* we have *speaker*. How have we described the meaning of -*er*? Does this same ending attach to other nouns with the same effect on meaning? (Notice that this ending also happens to be an inflectional suffix, but of course it means something entirely different.) Refer to other words in Lesson I for examples of derivational suffixes that form nouns from other parts of speech: -*ment* (abatement); -*ity* (normality); -*ness* (abstruseness). Caution: When you are not very familiar with a word, look it up before adding a derivational suffix to it. There is no pattern or rule by which you can know which suffix to use if, for example, you wish to make a noun from some other word. Thus if you are not careful, it is easy to use a word that doesn't exist. Example: How would you form nouns from the adjectives *skeptical* and *futile*? If you did not look these up, you might use *skepticalness* and *futileness*, on the analogy of many other words, like *graciousness* and *righteousness*.

(Although these forms are in the dictionary, *skepticism* and *futility* are preferred in most contexts.)

Notice how different derivational endings are used to form nouns from each of the following adjectives?

Adjective	Noun
kind	kindness
true	truth
able	ability
hard	hardship, hardness
false	falsity, falseness

We cannot say *kindhood*, *trueship*, *ableness*, etc.

J. Now let us look one more time at our bases, Here too we can see a method of classification:

We have seen that prefixes and suffixes must always be attached to a base; they never appear alone, as words. Is the same thing true of bases? Let us examine some bases from our sentence: speaker, declared, failing, juvenile, playgrounds. From this list we can observe the following:

(1) Some bases can stand alone. Which ones are they? (speak, fail, play, ground)

(2) Others cannot stand alone. (-clar-, juven-)

Those that can stand alone we call *free forms*. Those that cannot are *bound forms*. In which category would we place prefixes and suffixes? All bases and affixes, then, are either free or bound forms. The English language contains a limited number of affixes, which could be listed. It contains an inexhaustible list of bases, both bound and free forms, and new ones are continually being added.

K. We are now approaching a definition of a *word*.

No doubt it seems obvious to you where a word begins and ends. But it would not be so obvious under certain circumstances. You might have been born in a much earlier period of history, before there was an English language at all, when Greek and Roman writing consisted of letters strung together without spaces between groups of letters. Or you might have heard your language, but never seen it written, the situation of a small child or a person whose language has not been given a written form. Notice the difficulty some students have with spelling such words as *a lot*, *a while*, and *all right*. This results from the fact that the white spaces between words in writing do not always reflect corresponding breaks in the stream of speech.

The process of separating sounds into word units is not perfect. For example, if *football* is one word, why is *fountain pen* two? *Drugstore* is listed in the dictionary as both *drug store* and *drugstore*. Many such compound words are hyphenated, but even dictionaries have problems in deciding which ones. Whether to write *dry-clean* as two words, as a hyphenated word, or as one solid word is simply a matter of convention or usage. No matter which way such a unit is written, it is probably a word according to some definitions and two words according to others.

For our present purposes, we can define a word as any free form which consists of a single base, with or without prefixes or suffixes.

If we look for words in our sentence, we notice the problem already suggested. In which word do we see this problem? (playgrounds)

What do we usually call such forms in which there are two bases? (compound words) Notice that if we call *playgrounds* one word, we must also admit to our classification of "word" *ice cream*, *postman*, *football player*, *easy chair*, *arm chair*, etc. We might also notice one other feature of such words. What is the difference between the two items in each of the following pairs?

a gold físh	a góldfish
a strong bóx	a stróng box
a singing stúdent	a sínging student

Notice that the distinction is entirely one of stress, which we shall see later is an important signal in English.

The above situation indicates that we will probably do better to retain our original definition, even though we must then consider *goldfish* and *playground* two words each instead of one.

1. Using our definition, let us examine some of the possibilities it includes, beginning with the base *kind*.

kind	base
unkind	prefix plus base
unkindness	prefix plus base plus derivational suffix
unkindest	prefix plus base plus inflectional suffix
unkindnesses	prefix plus base plus derivational suffix plus inflectional suffix
kindness	base plus derivational suffix
kinder	base plus inflectional suffix
kindnesses	base plus derivational suffix plus inflectional suffix

Exercises:

Exer. 1: The following bound forms are bases that combine with numerous familiar prefixes to form words. Form af least three words from each base by adding prefixes only.

1. -vent
2. -tend
3. -clude
4. -cept
5. -cede
6. -mit

Exer. 2: Form nouns from the following adjectives by adding or changing the derivational suffix. Consult a dictionary if necessary.

1. good
2. intelligent
3. consistent
4. popular
5. averse
6. genuine
7. confident
8. affable
9. benign
10. green

Exer. 3: Form nouns from the following verbs by adding appropriate derivational suffixes:

1. convey
2. break
3. employ
4. sail
5. argue
6. remit
7. decide
8. consecrate
9. analyze
10. prepare

Exer. 4: Form as many words as possible from each of the following base adjectives by adding prefixes and derivational suffixes:

1. clear
2. sober
3. strange
4. rare
5. dead

Exer. 5: Form adjectives from each of the following nouns by using an appropriate derivational suffix.

1. apathy
2. indifference
3. science
4. friend
5. study
6. anachronism
7. education
8. lethargy
9. avarice
10. satire

Exer. 6: List the bases in the following items. Underline the items that may be called words in the sense that they are free forms and they contain only one base.

1. containers
2. prefixation
3. baseball
4. lighthouse-keeper
5. embankment
6. footman
7. unbelieving
8. anybody
9. night watchman
10. invader

Exer. 7: In the following list circle each inflectional suffix and underline each derivational suffix.

1. bricks
2. friendliest
3. pained
4. riotousness
5. beautifiers
6. nastily
7. growths
8. artistic
9. activities
10. invader

Exer. 8: Analyze the following sentence as follows: (1) What are the structure words? (2) What are the form class words? (3) What are the bases? (4) Which ones are free forms? (5) bound forms? (6) What are the prefixes? (7) What are the suffixes? (8) derivational suffixes? (9) inflectional suffixes?

When the bugler blows the mess call, the hungry recruits respond with alacrity.

Objectives:

1. To increase the student's awareness of these suffixes as grammatical signals.

2. To serve as a spelling aid, by presenting the student with examples of analogous spellings (e.g.: occurrence and abhorrence: To my abhorrence, I learned to spell occurrence).

3. To illustrate the ease with which words in English can cross form class lines.

4. To show one source of the word wealth of English, some words chaning their form class and others modifying their shape and taking on a new meaning within the original form class.

5. To show that etymological information in dictionaries can help to sharpen one's understanding of a word.

6. To facilitate the study of some foreign languages.

The kists of suffixable (note the "live" suffix here) words on pp. 79-81 can be used for various purposes and in various ways. Just showing the lists to certain students might be enough to establish the value of knowing suffixes. For others, work with selected suffixes (-ance and -ence, for example) might be desirable. Some students might find it profitable to work their way through all these suffixes (even to memorize some of them) in conjunction with other work on each of the form classes.

Some methods of using the noun list are suggested below.

Exercise I. For this exercise the teacher could write in one column the six listed suffixes (p. 79) by which a verb can become a noun. In a second column, intermixed and in their verb form, he could put as many of the verbs as he though necessary to make his point.

To the student:

1. What one form class do all the words in the second column belong to? (Be sure you look at a sufficient number of words before you answer.)
2. Attach a suffix from the first column to each of the words in the second column, in accordance with good English usage. Attach several if the word permits. (Watch your spelling: in certain words it may be necessary to drop or to double a consonant, to drop or to change a vowel. Check your dictionary if in doubt.)

3. What form class do the newly produced words belong to?--Take careful note of the suffixes that did the job: they are characteristic endings of the form class just produced.

(The teacher may wish to point out at this time that there are other suffixes by which verbs become nouns-- -(a)tion is a common one: cf celebrate, migrate, etc. -- but that these other suffixes mark other form classes as well as mouns.)

4. Do carriage and marriage illustrate the addition of a suffix to a word in the original form class? Check the etymologies of these words in a good dictionary. See also the etymology of flowage.

Exercise II. Exercises II and III can be set up in the same manner that Exercise I was.

To the student:

1. Same
2. as for
3. Exercise I

Exercise III

1. Same
2. as for
3. Exercise I
4. Could lobster, holster, huckster, monster, or widower fit into one of the above word lists? Check the etymologies of these words. Check teamster as well.
5. Name 2 (or more) additional suffixes, not treated in Exercises I-III, which allow a word to change from some other form class into a noun. Illustrate the change.
6. Are any of the suffixes treated in these exercises "live" ones? If yes, illustrate.

After concluding the study of characteristic suffixes for any one form class, the teacher might contrast these derivational suffixes with inflectional suffixes, pointing out (among other differences) that though we have many, many derivational suffixes and though the language continually adds new ones and renews old ones -- (consider -naut and -nik, if the class hasn't brought them up already)--we have few inflectional suffixes and are in no hurry to add to them. Gleason points out that Al Capp wanted the plural of schmoo to be schmoon and that he used that plural form often and clearly--but without effect.

Suffixes added to verbs to make nouns

--age	coinage, flowage, cleavage, postage, equipage, breakage
-ence	occurrence, submergence, abhorrence, difference, precedence
-ance	attendance, assistance, defiance, entrance, avoidance, *admittance, forbearance, conveyance, contrivance
-er	writer, singer, helper, dancer, talker, boiler, sailor, fighter, thinker, farmer, player, follower, lighter
-ee	nominee, lessee, divorcee, assignee, devotee, payee, draftee
-ment	inducement, adjustment, development, adornment, employment, chastisement, infringement, indictment, acknowledgment, payment, agreement, argument

Suffixes added to adjectives to make nouns

** -(en)ce	turbulence, affluence, decadence, iridescence, ebullience somnolence, convenience, independence, frequence
-(an)ce	distance, vigilance, brilliance, repugnance, abundance
-cy	frequency, accuracy, buoyancy, normalcy, delicacy, fluency stridency, expediency, pliancy, relevancy
-ity	jollity, humidity, homogeneity, clarity, maturity, purity, insipidity, vitality, mediocrity, reality, civility, familiarity
-ness	sadness, Godliness, coolness, redness, feebleness, darkness, boldness, rudeness, happiness, hopelessness

Suffixes added to nouns to make other nouns

-cy	presidency, magistracy, transparency, advocacy, democracy
-er	potter, forester, draper, hammerer, nailer, liner, outfielder
-ian	musician, electrician, beautician, tactician, logician, politician, mathematician, librarian
-ism	Communism, Puritanism, Catholicism, Americanism, journalism, heroism, vandalism, criticism, monarchism, gangsterism
-ist	cellist, impressionist, scientist, chiropodist, pianist, artist violinist, physicist
-ship	kinship, chairmenship, leadership, companionship, township, courtship, statesmanship, friendship, professorship
-ster	teamster, mobster, tipster, trickster, gamester, roadster

*In common school dialect, this verb does not need a suffix for noun use: "He got an admit from the dean." Note the shift in stress.

**These suffixes seem to attach themselves to adjectives ending in /t/.

Verb Suffixes:

-ate (´ ˘ ˋ) --added chiefly to bound stems and to a few nouns
graduate, deliberate, exaggerate, investigate, precipitate, machinate, implicate, alienate, exasperate, repudiate, dominate, retaliate, humiliate, contaminate, circulate (note noun derivatives in -ation)

-ize --added to bound stems, nouns, adjectives
subsidize, harmonize, aggrandize, summarize, generalize, jeopardize, utilize, monopolize, minimize, apologize, eulogize, pulverize, immortalize

-fy --added to stems, roots, and adjectives
modify, fectify, revivify, intensify, deify, verify, mystify, amplify, mortify, liquefy, beautify

-ish --added to bound stems
abolish, demolish, admonish, embellish, punish, varnish, finish, furnish, languish

-en --added to one-syllable adjectives, some nouns, a few bound stems
harden, blacken, worsen, fasten, lessen, sweeten, heighten, lengthen, strengthen, stiffen, sharpen

and one prefix:

en- --added mainly to nouns, but also to verbs plus a few adjectives and stems
enforce, enhance, endure, entránce, enclose, encircle, enlist, encumber, enlighten, endear, engross

Adjective Suffixes:

-y (added to one- and two-syllable nouns and bound stems)
rusty, corny, soapy, muddy, dirty, lousy, watery, icy, feathery, sugary, blistery, buttery, juicy, greasy, holy

-al (added to nouns and bound stems)
national, regional, doctoral, personal, clerical, fatal, secretarial, vestigial, bestial

-able (added to verbs and bound stems)
washable, adaptable, lamentable, teachable, curable, obtainable, perishable, adjustable, viable, portable, capable

-ful and -less (added to nouns)
childless, peerless, merciless, joyless, hopeless, fearless, homeless, respectful, beautiful, bountiful, colorful, joyful, cheerful, careful, thoughtful, shameful — (handful, spoonful)

-ar, -ary, -ic, -ish, -ous (nouns and bound stems)
linear, honorary, columnar, popular, customary, literary, poetic, heroic, comic, climatic, metallic, boyish, mulish, bookish, freakish, childish, obvious, ambiguous, rigorous, capricious, famous

-ent and -ive (verbs and bound stems)
ardent, indulgent, pertinent, convenient, furtive, incisive, active, cursive, native

-en (nouns)
golden, ashen, woolen, waxen, wooden, oaken

-ed (verbs, nouns, bound stems)
bearded, moneyed, ragged, rugged, aged

-ing (verbs)
interesting, exciting, revealing, tiring, pleasing

-ly (nouns and bound stems)
friendly, orderly, mannerly, homely, ugly

One final point — unrelated to what has gone before, but interesting and perhaps useful in another connection. A way to illustrate that our prestige dialect is not inherently "logical" and thereby superior to other dialects is to note that oxen -- a lost sheep among plurals — is nonlogical not only in its near-uniqueness but also in its lack of parallelism with phonologically related forms like box, fox, and ax. "Logically," the plural should be /aksiz/. Students might find it revealing to ask themselves if this form "sounds logical" to them.

III E. ESSAY OF DEFINITION

Procedure for Use of Parts of Speech Material in Essay of Definition

Introduction:

A frequent composition assignment in senior English courses is the essay of definition. This brief unit is intended to suggest ways in which the parts of speech materials can be used as subject matter for this kind of writing assignment. To be most effective, this unit should follow the study of the parts of speech. In addition, both the one-paragraph logical definition assignment and the four-to-six paragraph essay of rhetorical definition should be used.

Both we teachers and our students might share some of Alice's bewilderment when confronted with the problem of definition:

> "There's glory for you!"
>
> "I don't know what you mean by 'glory,'" Alice said.
>
> Humpty Dumpty smiled contemptuously. "Of course you don't--till I tell you. I meant 'there's a nice knockdown argument for you.'"
>
> "But 'glory' doesn't mean 'a nice knockdown argument,'" Alice objected.
>
> "When I use a word," Humpty said in rather a scornful tone, "it means just what I choose it to mean--neither more nor less."
>
> "The question is," said Alice, "whether you can make words mean so many different things."
>
> "The question is," said Humpty Dumpty, "which is to be master--that's all."
>
> (Lewis Carroll, Through the Looking Glass, Ch. VI.)

Although the composition books used in senior English courses suggest various methods of presenting the idea of definition, the following is offered as a valid approach--one to which the definitions in the parts of speech unit are applicable.

Objectives:

1. To teach techniques of the essay of definition.
2. To provide a useful body of related subject matter for the essay of definition.
3. To provide opportunity for the student to bring together, organize, and present his understanding of the newer concepts of language.

What is commonly called real definition is concerned with what a word stands for, as opposed to nominal definition, which is concerned with the etymology of a word. Two primary types of real definition are the logical definition and the rhetorical definition.

In a logical definition the subject is defined concisely in a pattern that may be expressed in the following formula:

subject of definition = class (genus) + differentia (e)

example:

noun ≠ form-class word + inflectional suffixes
derivational suffixes
positioning: before verb,
after determiner

In its development the essay of rhetorical definition may employ the pattern of the logical definition; however, the rhetorical development extends the meaning of the subject. One or more of the following methods are used to develop this extended definition:

A. Examples or illustrations
B. Comparison and contrast
C. Analysis (dividing the subject into its parts)
D. Description

PROBLEMS IN LOGICAL DEFINITION

1. Definition too inclusive or too exclusive:

Read the following definition of a verb:

A verb is a word that indicates action or state of being.

Since many nouns in English "indicate action," this definition seems too broad and possibly ambiguous. Words like jump and climb and hike "indicate" or "name" actions. By form and position tests we see that all three can be nouns.

Example: jump (uninflected) jumps (noun plural) FORM

Their jumps were record-breaking. POSITION

Compare this definition of a verb with the one stated above:

The formal characteristics of the verb are -s, -ing, -ed, or equivalents. It occurs in verb phrases usually after the auxiliary; in statements it comes after the subject; in questions and commands it is often first.

Identify the problem in this definition:

A linguist is one who studies pronouns.

Obviously a linguist's field of study is not this narrow. Is this definition an improvement?

A linguist observes and describes the system of a language or languages, their elements, constructions, and complexities.

2. Circular definition:

Read the following definition:

Usage study is the study of the use of words.

What have you learned from this definition? Is the next one clearer?

Usage study is concerned with the conventions of appropriate speaking and writing in a particular situation.

AVOID problems of inclusiveness, exclusiveness, and circularity in composing logical definitions.

TOPICS FOR LOGICAL DEFINITIONS (ONE PARAGRAPH)

A. One form-class word (noun, verb, adjective, or adverb)

B. A structure word (preposition, conjunction, auxiliary)

TOPICS FOR RHETORICAL ESSAY OF DEFINITION (FOUR TO SIX PARAGRAPHS)

A. Inflections in English

B. Derivational affixes (Limit to one or two form-class words)

C. Grammar and Usage

D. Lexical and structural meanings

Bibliography:

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III F. INTRODUCTION to a senior unit on PARTS OF SPEECH and DEFINITION

The mention of "parts of speech", no new subject for twelfth graders, is likely to provoke phonetic variations like "phooey" and "ugh." Every teacher since fourth grade has given approval to universally repeated definitions: "A noun is a name of a person, place, or thing" and "A verb expresses action, being, or state of being." The student usually sees no possible reason for challenging this judgment of his superiors on "grammar," a dead subject anyway.

The new approaches to language with new definitions for parts of speech use a new vocabulary to express new concepts. So for self-preservation, the twelfth grader in any school may feel it necessary to challenge any threat to the "old grammar" and to question the value of all this new learning, even though he believes the familiar grammar to be dead.

Teachers recognize all this. But there are further problems. Most high schools have an established curriculum, old books on the shelves, and many teachers well satisfied with the status quo. And if the teacher is in a school with a special curriculum, the problem of introducing the "new grammars" may be formidable indeed.

These were the problems that evoked this unit. The high school where this unit was developed is essentially a college preparatory institution. There "liberal arts" is the key to the direction of all courses. The school aims to stimulate logical inquiry and critical analysis, to free the student for personal evaluations based on objective facts seen in a frame of meaningful reference. These materials were designed to meet the particular requirements of the liberal arts high school and its faculty, and to challenge student thought by introducing the new linguistics work into a conservative, traditional curriculum.

The material in this unit has been "re-formed" to meet these needs. Like the materials of any science, linguistics offers the creative teacher new means to meet old needs.

To most neophytes the "new grammars" are a maze of details, each apparently indispensable. Unfortunately, teacher and student alike may be unable to see the forest for the trees. By placing the new into old frames of reference--parts of speech and definition--this unit allows a kind of double perspective, a new look at details of language from the point of view of definition. This double perspective liberally challenges unthinking acceptance by evoking logical, speculative, and evaluative judgment.

For instance, application of logical principles to conventional school grammar can expose "holes" through which the new grammar may gain entrance. To cite one example, the definition of noun is a classic of circularity. Etymologically it traces to the Latin for name, and the definition really says that a name is a name. Conventional school grammars, in an attempt to make such broad generality more explicit, have extended the definition by enumeration:

> A noun is a "name" of a person(girl, man, lady, Bill, Tom, Oscar Hammerstein, Amelia Earhart), place (city, town, ocean, hills, the Green Mountains, Chattanooga, Isthmus of Panama, Lake Ontario), thing (table, book, automobile, tooth, chalkboard, U.S.S. George Washington, United States Building), event (hike, race, assassination, earthquake, election, promotion, Olympics), or concept (justice, love, charity, goodness, evolution, accomplishment). Certain kinds of nouns based on verbs designate actions ("His running," "Her writing," "Their swimming," "The dog's barking"); verbal nouns ending in the suffix -ing are called gerunds.

Such an extension is obviously a lexical "exercise in futility," especially when one English word can grammatically function as several parts of speech. Name itself can function as a noun, a verb, and a noun modifier, to name only most obvious functions.

The name is Mary.
Name the members.
He is the name-caller.

Note the complication of caller, a noun formed from a verb.

The history of English school grammar exposes the speculative and practical causes for present grammatical confusion. Grammar, even etymologically, leads to ancient Greek philosophers and Greek literature. Until the nineteenth century, European and American linguists were basically Platonic in their assumptions. Broad scholarship during the late 18th and the 19th centuries led linguists to more Aristotelian conclusions about language, its nature and the proper methodology for its study.

These historically divergent approaches can be dramatized through two English poets and a rose. Gertrude Stein and William Shakespeare stroll together through an English rose garden. Miss Stein, gazing at the floral emblem of England, murmurs her circular line: "A rose is a rose is a..." With raised brow Mr. Shakespeare says: "A rose by any other name would smell as sweet."

From the point of time and numbers, Miss Stein holds the stronger argumentative position. She seems to agree with Plato's Cratylus from the dialogue Cratylus* that "roseness" is somehow reflected in the name "rose"; the name is an imperfect imitation of reality. The Platonic assumption has controlled western grammars since the time of the Hellenist, Dionysius Thrax, 100 B.C. All seemed to agree with the Greeks that Greek is the "pure" and "perfect" language and to reason that Latin must be a corruption. Contemporary vernaculars, therefore, must be kept within "reasonable" limits. So after the Renaissance, the French established the Academy and the English wrote prescriptive school grammars.

Lindley Murray's English Grammar, Adapted to the Different Classes of Learners, popularly "Americanized" this grammar and established it in the school systems. Murray's rule for "Perspicuity" was recently laid to rest.

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* See Appendix

A clerk noted in the margin of a manuscript that Winston Churchill had an indiscreet preposition reposing at the end of a sentence. Churchill wittily responded: "This is errant pedantry, up with which I will not put."

But the tradition of school grammars is not so easily disposed of. Perhaps they can be wisely displaced by another tradition equally respectable in origin and better related to the reality of English today. And today, more than ever, linguistic fantasy via mass media is powerful.

History shows that the Platonic assumption can lead to disaster or inanity. In terms of "a rose is a rose," "a teenager is a teenager" and "that is that." Tragically, "a Jew is a Jew" led some 6,000,000 helpless people to the death chambers of Nazi Germany. Inanely, similar generalities lead millions of Americans to buy what they do not need as if they were buying happiness: "Duz does everything."

Mr. Shakespeare's "A rose by any other name would smell as sweet" suggests a realistic Aristotelian view. Aristotle starts with the "material" of the language—sound—and proceeds to distinguish Greek form class words, nouns and verbs, from what modern linguists call structure words. Edward Sapir, in his classic Language, establishes the basic compatibility between modern structuralists and the Aristotelian tradition. Both start with "the speech element" and both consider the relation between word and referent as an arbitrary convention.

The following short unit is meant as one means of transition from conventional grammar to the new grammars. Applying the Aristotelian tests to a definition of one English form class—the noun—the unit is a step toward using, modifying, and supplementing conventional school grammar without warping the truth it does hold.

NOTE TO THE STUDENT

It has been said that modern technology produces gadgets that only a genius could originate, but that any fool can operate. Language is more complicated than any product of technology, yet it can be operated by most six-year-olds. Every native speaker early masters the sound system, the words and sentence patterns, so that he can with the ease of pushing a button express wants: "I wanna wear my red one"; ask questions: "What makes birds fly?"; and indulge deeper musings: "Once I can read I'll be as smart as the grownups." So he goes to school and learns to read.

Soon after entering the intermediate grades he begins to learn something about his language. He begins to analyze sentences and he learns the parts of speech. During high school he uses grammar sometimes, for correct usage. But by the senior year he probably has joined the ranks of the skeptics: "What good is grammar anyway?"

The purpose of the following exercises is to logically probe, to hold definition, its nature, rules, and kinds, up to the conventional school definition of noun: "the name of a person, place, or thing." With this logical wedge, the complexity and fluidity of the English structure system may "show." And insights could lead to creative mastery. At the least, insights excite appreciation.

FIRST LESSON:

This lesson consists of a series of exercises, each logically probing the English definition of noun from a different direction. Students will need a collegiate dictionary.

1. This exercise uses a bit of comparative linguistics to establish the comparative inadequacy of the English definition and to indicate the basic structural difference between an inflected language and English.

   A. Find the definition of noun used in a Latin text. Then write the following sentences in that language.

      1. Children sing songs.

      2. Children sing me a song.

      3. Do children sing songs?

      4. Songs will be sung to me by the children.

      5. Children sang songs to me.

   B. Questions:

      1. Which sentences have more words--the English or the Latin?

      2. What happens to the word order in the Latin version?

      3. What seems to be the significant difference between Latin and English words? Ignore, of course, the vocabulary.

      4. Does the Latin definition of noun accurately describe the Latin nouns?

      5. Does the English definition resemble the Latin definition?

      6. In what significant way does the English definition differ from the Latin definition? Why?

      7. Why is the English definition so weak?

      8. Do you have any suggestions to improve the English definition?

2. This exercise uses the dictionary to establish the nature of definition. Then it provides a working critique to evaluate particular definitions, in this case the definition of the English noun.

A. Trace the etymology of define. Then relate this history to the present meaning of the term.

B. Five rules govern definition:

1. The definition must be interchangeable with the term defined, neither too broad (man is a mammal) nor too narrow (man is Tom Smith).

2. The definition must be clearer than the term defined. (Clarity is relative to the audience. Technical terms may clarify a term for a group of specialists.)

3. The definition must not include the term defined.

4. The definition should be affirmative. (To say what a thing is not may be a "last ditch stand." Ordinarily, to say that carrots are not peas or steak is to start a subtracting process that could proceed ad infinitum).

5. The definition should be brief and arranged according to genus and difference. (Genus and difference are explained more fully in the next section of the unit. At this point it may suffice to give examples of every-day classifying of items. Arrange a grocery list into like items and then "define" each item. Clean the attic and arrange items. Then try to "define" the groups of items and the items in each group. Clean your dresser and arrange the items in each drawer. Then "define" the items.)

C. Questions:

1. Apply these rules, one by one, to the English definition of noun.

2. Apply these rules, one by one, to the Latin definition.

3. Why is the English definition so weak?

4. Do you have any suggestions to improve the English definition?

3. The conventional school definition of noun is based on lexical meaning.

To see better the inadequacy of the lexical base for grammatical definition, consider the ten Aristotelian categories which include all matters of external reality.

A. The ten categories are:

1. Substance--What is it?

2. Quality--What kind is it?

3. Quantity--How much of it?
4. Action--What is it doing?
5. Relation--What are its connections?
6. Reception--What is happening to it?
7. Position--What are the relations of its parts?
8. Place--Where is it?
9. Timing--When?
10. Vestition--Is it covered?

B. Place each of these words in as many appropriate categories as possible.

Example: cuts--Action, Timing, Substance, Quantity

actor
actors
acting
actor's
act
acts

lead
leader
leaders
leader's
leaders'
leading

courage
courageous
encourage
encouraged
encouraging

wound
wounds
wounded
wound's
wounds'
wounding

laugh
laughs
laughter
laughing
laughed

vision
visualize
envision
visible

C. Select some words you consider to have clear meaning. Place these words into as many categories as possible. Then form derivatives of these words and place the derivatives in as many categories as possible.

Example: man: Substance, Quantity, Quality, Action, Timing,
manly: Quality
man's: Substance, Quantity, Relation
manning: Action, Timing

D. Use some of the words you have categorized in different sentence positions. Does position affect meaning?

Example: Act I is ready.
Act correctly.
She will act the part..
He wants to act the part of the hero.
Does position affect the part of speech?

E. Does "meaning," lexicon, provide a logical basis for defining parts of speech? See B., C., and D. above.

SECOND LESSON: Toward a New Definition of *Noun*

Knowing the nature of definition and some practical logical rules prepares for consideration of the possible *kinds* of definition. There are a limited number.

Kinds of Definition:

- I. Nominal
  - A. Etymological
  - B. Vernacular
- II. Descriptive
  - A. Through a group of contingents
  - B. Through a property
- III. Essential
  - A. According to the four senses
    - 1. Efficient cause
    - 2. Final cause
    - 3. Material cause
    - 4. Formal cause
  - B. According to genus and difference
    - 1. Genus
    - 2. Difference

In defining *define* the dictionary used the two kinds of nominal definition: etymological and vernacular. Etymology is a fascinating and enlightening study. It traces the history of a word "by pointing out the root or primitive upon which it is based." Etymological study led nineteenth-century linguists to trace families of languages and to place English on the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family tree. Etymological study by the ancients was more fanciful. Platonists reasoned that if words imitate the inner reality of the things named, then tracing a word to its ultimate source will reveal the inner reality of the thing referred to. For example, the essence of *robin* must lie hidden in its source, the French diminutive of *Robert*. *Gooseberry* must have some "real" connection with the reality of *goose*. This theory led to the exercise of ingenuity, but with obvious shortcomings.

Vernacular definition follows etymological in the dictionary. It gives the popular usage(s) of a term, the common native meaning.(s). In the vernacular, one word may have several current meanings, that is, it may be *equivocal*. Equivocal terms should be made *univocal*, to signify one meaning, in a particular context. Example: /rayt/

You are right: 2 and 2 equals 4.
Turn right at the next corner.
Write your name here.
The playwright is coming.
The Baptism rite was in church.

Vernacular terms may be classified according to social acceptability as standard or substandard. Example of a standard question and a substandard answer: "Are you coming?" "No, I ain't." Notice that the substandard answer is clear, unmistakably so. But it may bar the speaker from a certain social group.

The second kind of definition is descriptive. There are two kinds of descriptive definition: according to a group of contingents or according to a property. Contingents are non-essential qualities. For example: Man is a blue-eyed blond about six feet tall who attends school from the age of six. The list of contingents here is obviously inadequate, and even misleading. Definitions according to property are more exact and therefore more difficult. A property is a unique quality that is a result of the very nature of a thing. For example: Man is an upright mammal capable of humor. Humor is proper to man because it is an expression of intelligence. But humor cannot be the nature because if man were humorous by nature his humanity would cease at a funeral.

Essential definition attempts to indicate the very nature or essence of a thing. The two kinds of essential definition are through the four causes and through genus and difference. For example:

> The scissors? I mean the silver thing on the blue book on the piano.

This definition may identify the particular scissors but it is not essential to scissors to be silver, on a blue book, or on a piano.

> The scissors? I mean the cutting instrument that works like a shears. It has two intersecting blades.

This definition more nearly approaches identifying what any scissors is.

One way to give an essential definition is to account for the causes. Cause is anything which produces an effect or result. Cause may be remote or proximate. Four kinds of causes help to account for the nature of a thing: efficient, final, material, and formal. This all sounds much more difficult than it is. For example: Sue knows Tom would like a devil's food birthday cake. So this is her goal, the purpose she has in mind when she looks through her recipes. This final cause determines the materials she uses, materials quite different from those in an angel food cake. With the final cause determined and the material cause at hand, Sue forms the cake. She combines the materials according to recipe in a certain order and way; she cooks them in certain tins at a certain temperature for a certain length of time. When the cake cools, Sue covers it with a creamy frosting. And when Tom bites into the moist flaky devil's food cake, he knows that Sue has been an efficient cook; she is the efficient cause of his birthday cake. In summary:

Efficient cause is the agent who produces the effect.

Final cause is the purpose or goal for which the thing is made.

Material cause is that of which the thing is made.

Formal cause is the structure of the material that determines the kind of thing it actually is.

Every theory of language attempts to account for the causes of language. Possibly because of the vastness of the subject, some have emphasized one or two at the expense of the others. It may be of interest to investigate:

How have the Platonists (analogists) accounted for the four causes?
How have the Aristotelians (anomalists)?
How have the nominalists?
How have the advocates of other theories--the "bow-wow" theory? the "pooh-pooh" theory? the "ding-dong" theory? the "folk-hero" theory?
Look up other theories of language and account for the four causes.
What would Aristotle and Sapir say about each of these theories?
What do you say?

Analogists historically assumed that ancient inflected languages were more perfect than later vernacular languages that tended to drop inflections. This assumption resulted in grammarians trying to force English into classical grammatical forms. Consequently the description of the formal cause of English based on the true material cause of English was largely ignored until recently. Significant studies were done by Curme, Jesperson, Kruisinga, Poutsma, and Long who laid the foundation for later structuralists, scholars of the formal and material causes of English grammar.

Perfect essential definition according to *genus* and *specific difference* is considered logically perfect because it indicates in the most simple and exact manner the nature of the thing defined. *Genus* (relate to "general") is a "class of objects." For definition, the genus should be proximate, that is, the smallest group class containing similar species. To put "square" in the genus of "geometric figure" is not to put it in the most proximate genus. Genus *mammal* is not proximate for *man*. *Species* is "a class of individuals having common attributes and designated by a common name." "Snails" may be considered as genus or species according to the final subdivision sought. "Snails" is genus if you want to name further subdivisions of snails: salt-water snails, fresh-water snails, Chinese snails, American snails, etc. To separate *species* from *genus*, it is necessary to note a specific difference. *Specific difference* is that characteristic of a class which distinguishes it from other classes in the same genus. Some examples of perfect definition are given, but more are easily found in the dictionary. More fun, make up your own.

(species)"Square" is a rectangle (genus) with equal sides (difference).

(species)"Zebra" is "any of several fleet equine mammals, allied to the horse and the ass (genus), but with dark stripes on a white or buffy ground" (difference).

Third Lesson: Possible Definitions of Noun

This outline of possible definitions is meant to be indicative. As Paul Roberts says in Understanding Grammar, "Thousands of English words have no proper part of speech, but rather several possibilities." This outline should clarify the relationships of possible kinds of definition and thereby help the student see more clearly the contributions of scientific grammar to an understanding of the most complex and comprehensive of human arts — language.

I. Nominal definition
   A. Etymological: ME Nowne fr AF noun fr OE nun fr L Nomen meaning name.
   B. Vernacular: "name of a person, place, or thing."

II. Essential definition

   A. Through causes
      1. Efficient cause: English-speaking man
      2. Final cause: communication, sharing of knowledge and experience
      3. Material cause: sounds — phonemes and morphemes
      4. Formal cause: structure of phonemes and morphemes to make utterances

   B. Through genus and difference
      1. Genus: English nominals
      2. Difference: special forms to signal plural and possessive, see III below.

III. Descriptive definition

   A. Inflections
      1. Inflections to signal plural
      2. Inflections to signal possessive

   B. Determiners: the, a/an, my, your, our, their, etc.

   C. Derivational affixes (too numerous to list)

   D. Certain positions in relation to verbs and other identifiable parts of speech

Summary descriptive definition of noun:

A noun is any word belonging to an inflectional series which is built, like man, man's, men, men's or boy, boy's, boys, boys', on either or both of the contrasts between singular and plural numbers and between common and possessive cases, and on no other contrasts. (James Sledd, A Short Introduction to English Grammar, 70)

Plato Cratylus (translated by B. Jewett)

The dialogue is a dramatic argument with sides personified. Hermogenes, one character, represents sophists who claim that names are purely conventional, a devised system for social communication. The main character, Socrates, points out that Hermogenes fails to consider the basis for the convention...Where did the convention come from? Cratylus, representing another group of sophists, believes that a name is either "true" and "natural" or no name at all. Socrates mediates the extreme views of Hermogenes and Cratylus with a rational conceptualism that to Americans of the 20th century seems terribly artificial. Socrates reasons that words are works of art, "made" by the inventive dialectician to express "truth" and then approved by the legislator. Words are not perfect imitations of nature because sound imitation is limited and because chance conventions step in.

This somewhat satirical dialectic exposes the bases of much linguistic speculation for 2,000 years. Hermogenes, with some sense of exasperation, presents his dispute with Cratylus to Socrates:

Her. I should explain to you, Socrates, that our friend Cratylus has been arguing about names; he says that they are natural and not conventional; not a portion of the human voice which men agree to use; but that there is a truth or correctness in them, which is the same for Hellenes as for barbarians. Whereupon I ask him, whether his own name of Cratylus is a true name or not, and he answers 'Yes.' And Socrates? 'Yes.' Then every man's name, as I tell him, is that which he is called. To this he replies--'If all the world were to call you Hermogenes, that would not be your name.' And when I am anxious to have a further explanation he is ironical and mysterious, and seems to imply that he has a notion of his own about the matter, if he would only tell, and could entirely convince me, if he chose to be intelligible. Tell me, Socrates, what this oracle means; or rather tell me, if you will be so good, what is your own view of the truth or correctness of names, which I would far sooner hear.

Soc. Regarding the name as an instrument, what do we do when we name?
Her. I cannot say.
Soc. Do we not give information to one another, and distinguish things according to their natures?
Her. Certainly we do.

Soc. Then a name is an instrument of teaching and of distinguishing natures, as the shuttle is of distinguishing the threads of the web.

Her. Yes.

....

Soc. Then, Hermogenes, not every man is able to give a name, but only a maker of names; and this is the legislator, who of all skilled artisans in the world is the rarest.

Her. True.

....

Soc. Then as to names: ought not our legislator also to know how to put the true natural name of each thing into sounds and syllables, and to make and give all names with a view to the ideal name, if he is to be a namer in any true sense? And we must remember that different legislators will not use the same syllables...the material may vary, and still the instrument be equally good of whatever ..made, whether in Hellas or in a foreign country;--there is no difference.

Her. Very true.

....

Soc. Then, Hermogenes, I should imagine this giving of names to be no such light matter as you fancy, or the work of light or chance persons; and Cratylus is right in saying that things have names by nature, and that not every man is an artificer of names, but he only who looks to the name which each thing by nature has, and is able to express the true forms of things in letters and syllables.

....

Her. I wish you would tell me, Socrates, what sort of an imitation is a name?

Soc. In the first place, I should reply, not a musical imitation, though that is also vocal; nor, again, an imitation of what music imitates; these, in my judgment, would not be naming. Let me put the matter as follows: All objects have sound and figure, and many have colour?

Her. Certainly.

Soc. But the art of naming appears not to be concerned with imitations of this kind; the arts which have to do with them are music and drawing?

Her. True.

Soc. Again, is there not an essence of colour and sound as well as of anything else which may be said to have an essence?

Her. I should think so.

Soc. Well, and if any one could express the essence of each thing in letters and syllables, would he not express the nature of each thing?

Her. Quite so.

....

Soc. That objects should be imitated in letters and syllables, and so find expression, may appear ridiculous but it cannot be avoided--there is no better principle to which we can look for the truth of first names. Deprived of this we must have recourse to divine help, like the tragic poets, who in any perplexity have their gods waiting in the air...

....

Appendix B

Definition: Latin noun, nomen

Words used to name things or persons are called Nouns. Nouns are concrete and abstract, proper and common. Nouns are inflected according to gender; masculine, feminine, and neuter; number; singular and plural; and case: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative, and ablative. There are five declensions: a-ae, o-i, i-is, e-ei, determined by the nominative and genitive endings.

Definition: Latin verb, verbum

Words which mean doing or being are called Verbs. The Verb is the chief word in Latin, as in other languages (Note the stamp of the analogist). A Verb changes its form in five ways--by voice, mood, tense, number, and person. Voice is active and passive; moods are indicative, subjunctive, and imperative. Tenses are present, present perfect, imperfect, pluperfect, future, and future perfect. Numbers are singular and plural, and persons are first, second, and third.

To these five forms of change which constitute the entire Verb proper, usually called the finite verb, are to be added:

Verb forms used as Nouns: Infinitive, Gerund, Supine

Verb forms used as Adjectives: Participle, and Gerundive

III G. A TEST TO DETERMINE THE STUDENT'S KNOWLEDGE OF PHONOLOGY, MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

FORM AND FUNCTION — DIRECTIONS

Form A

A person who has grown up speaking and writing English has a great understanding of the *forms* (spoken or written shapes) his language uses. He understands what roles those forms can play—what *functions* they can perform in a word, in a phrase, or in a sentence. From *form*, *function*, word order, and sound pattern, he can understand relationships between words and word parts.

This is a short test covering such understandings. You can do well on this test without "knowing grammar" in the school sense, but some of your past training may help.

Each question will ask you to compare three items in a *particular* way. In each question, you must try to find one which is different from the other two in the way stated for that question. For instance:

Example 1. Is one of the underlined parts different in sound?
A. o*ff*
B. *f*or
C. o*f*
D. All are alike

Since the sounds in the underlined part of *off* and in *for* are very much alike yet different from the sound in *of*, answer *C* is "different" and should be marked on the answer sheet.

Example 2. Does one of the pairs of underlined parts show a different change in function?
A. A *short* intermission can seem very *short*.
B. A *thorough* examination can become very *thorough*.
C. A *cold* shower can seem very *cold*.
D. All are alike.

In the first occurrence, *short*, *thorough*, and *cold* perform the the same function. Again, in the second occurrence, *short*, *thorough*, and *cold* perform the same function. Accordingly, none is "different" and you should mark answer *D*, "all are alike.

MARK YOUR ANSWERS ON THE SEPARATE ANSWER SHEET.

Note to the teacher: Answers are provided for the benefit of the teacher.

FORM AND FUNCTION TEST, Form A

1. Is one of the underlined parts different in sound?
A. thick
B. brother
C. there
D. All are alike.

2. Is one underlined part different in sound?
A. scene
B. mice
C. aisle
D. All are alike.

3. Is one underlined part different in sound?
A. useful
B. uncertain
C. university
D. All are alike.

4. Is one underlined part different in sound?
A. care
B. wear
C. fair
D. All are alike.

5. Is one underlined part different in sound?
A. Church's
B. Tragg's
C. Lind's
D. All are alike.

6. Is one underlined part different in sound?
A. psychology
B. friction
C. scene
D. All are alike.

7. Is one of the underlined parts different in sound?
A. badge
B. huge
C. jury
D. All are alike.

8. Is one underlined part different in sound?
A. Ralph's
B. Curt's
C. Donald's
D. All are alike.

9. Is one underlined part different in sound?
A. ditch
B. which
C. pitch
D. All are alike.

10. Does one word have a different number of sounds?
    A. rind
    B. light
    C. known
    D. All are alike.

11. Does one word have a different number of vowel sounds?
    A. tame
    B. steam
    C. I'm
    D. All are alike.

12. Does one pair show a different change in sound?
    A. the ratchet was ratcheted
    B. the record was recorded
    C. they pyramid was pyramided
    D. All are alike.

13. Does one pair show no change in sound in the underlined parts?
    A. consume and consumption
    B. corrupt and corruption
    C. deduce and deduction
    D. All are alike.

14. Does one pair show a different change in sound?
    A. reserve and reservation
    B. indent and indentation
    C. condemn and condemnation
    D. All are alike.

15. Does one pair show a different change in accent, or stress?
    A. a white board and a blackboard
    B. a new song and a folk song
    C. a tall school and a high school
    D. All are alike.

16. Is one sentence still unclear even with a comma added?
    A. What are we having for lunch, students?
    B. Students, will the train schedules change?
    C. Do you think it will rain, students?
    D. All are alike.

17. Can one of these sentences be punctuated in two ways?
    A. The first person who enters the room will be chairman.
    B. My aunt who teaches school has a good sense of humor.
    C. My father, who stands all day at work, likes to stretch out at home.
    D. All are alike.

18. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship
    A. seldom enforced law
    B. steel supported structure
    C. vitamin enriched milk
    D. All are alike.

19. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship?
A. pretty girl
B. city girl
C. catty girl
D. All are alike.

20. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship?
A. friendly dogs
B. noisy dogs
C. many dogs
D. All are alike.

21. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship?
A. dark green coat
B. square blue scarf
C. bright red apple
D. All are alike.

22. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship?
A. silver minor
B. silver platter
C. silver pitcher
D. All are alike.

23. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
A. The man of the hour waved happily
B. The girl in the middle smiled brightly.
C. The officer about six o'clock returned briefly.
D. All are alike.

24. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
A. My pen was out of ink.
B. My pen scratched at every stroke.
C. My pen fell onto the floor.
D. All are alike.

25. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
A. specific house
B. cautious cat
C. marble statue
D. All are alike.

26. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
A. The fire, fanned by the wind, blazed wildly.
B. The golfers, caught by the storm, were soaked.
C. The driver, shaken by the experience, seemed unable to talk.
D. All are alike.

27. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
A. The very thought is upsetting.
B. It is very likely to rain.
C. He is a very friendly man.
D. All are alike.

28. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
A. the prettiest girl
B. the most intelligent answer
C. the oddest picture
D. All are alike.

29. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
A. In the corner will be too dark.
B. The worst is over.
C. Surf boarding is fun.
D. All are alike.

30. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
A. Writing too hastily, the student can make mistakes.
B. Writing too hastily can cause the student to make mistakes.
C. A student writing too hastily can make mistakes.
D. All are alike.

31. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
A. smaller
B. maker
C. farmer
D. All are alike.

32. Is one of these words different in formation?
A. dental
B. rental
C. mental
D. All are alike.

33. Is one of the underlined parts different in meaning?
A. children
B. books
C. taxes
D. All are alike.

34. Is one of the underlined parts different in meaning?
A. actress
B. mattress
C. address
D. All are alike.

35. Is one of the sentences quite different in meaning?
A. Quickly the car stopped.
B. The car stopped quickly.
C. The car quickly stopped.
D. All are alike.

36. Is one of the sentences quite different in meaning?
A. Sam brought one sandwich only.
B. Only Sam brought one sandwich.
C. Sam brought only one sandwich.
D. All are alike.

38. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. elevate
    B. modernize
    C. facility
    D. All are alike.

39. Does one of these phrases have only one meaning?
    A. teacher test
    B. salad bowl
    C. model picnic
    D. All have two meanings.

40. Does one of these headlines have only one meaning?
    A. Watch falls from window.
    B. Check bounces quickly
    C. Sing songs loudly
    D. All have two meanings.

FORM AND FUNCTION - DIRECTIONS

Form B

A person who has grown up speaking and writing English has a great understanding of the forms (spoken or written shapes) his language uses. He understands what roles these forms can play--what functions they can perform in a word, in a phase, or in a sentence. From form, function, word ord[illegible]d sound pattern, he can understand relationships between words and word parts.

This is a short test covering such understandings. You can do well on this test without "knowing grammar" in the school sense, but some of your past training may help.

Each question will ask you to compare three items in a particular way. In each question, you must try to find one which is different from the other two in the way stated for that question. For instance:

Example 1. Is one of the underlined parts different in sound?
A. off
B. for
C. of
D. All are alike.

Since the sound in the underlined part in off and in for are very much alike yet different from the sound in of, answer C is "different" and should be marked on the answer sheet.

Example 2. Does one of the pairs of underlined parts show a different change in function?
A. A short intermission can seem very short.
B. A thorough examination can become very thorough.
C. A cold shower can seem very cold.
D. All are alike.

In the first occurrence, short, thorough, and cold perform the same function. Again, in the second occurrence, short, thorough, cold perform the same function. Accordingly, none is "different" and you should mark answer D, "all are alike."

MARK YOUR ANSWERS ON THE SEPARATE ANSWER SHEET.

Note to the teacher: Answers are provided for the benefit of the teacher.

FORM AND FUNCTION, Form B

1. Is one underlined part different in sound?
   A. father
   B. thin
   C. then
   D. All are alike.

2. Is one underlined part different in sound?
   A. scent
   B. race
   C. island
   D. All are alike.

3. Is one underlined part different in sound?
   A. under
   B. united
   C. usable
   D. All are alike.

4. Is one underlined part different in sound?
   A. bear
   B. stare
   C. affair
   D. All are alike.

5. Is one underlined part different in sound?
   A. Beach's
   B. Ward's
   C. Cobb's
   D. All are alike.

6. Is one underlined part different in sound?
   A. character
   B. scent
   C. action
   D. All are alike.

7. Is one underlined part different in sound?
   A. lodge
   B. ago
   C. joy
   D. All are alike.

8. Is one underlined part different in sound?
   A. Robert's
   B. Phillip's
   C. Richard's
   D. All are alike.

9. Is one underlined part different in sound?
   A. witch
   B. rich
   C. stitch
   D. All are alike.

10. Does one word have a different number of sounds?
    A. mind
    B. boat
    C. doubt
    D. All are alike.

11. Does one word have a different number of vowel sounds?
A. grain
B. mine
C. case
D. All are alike.

12. Does one pair show a different change in sound?
A. The rebels had rebelled.
B. The tangles had tangled.
C. The models had modeled.
D. All are alike.

13. Does one pair show no change in sound?
A. assume and assumption
B. interrupt and interruption
C. reduce and reduction
D. All are alike.

14. Does one pair show a different change in sound?
A. resign and resignation
B. conserve and conservation
C. expect and expectation
D. All are alike.

15. Does one pair show a different change in accent, or stress?
A. a narrow strip and a drag strip
B. a rough board and a skateboard
C. a gray house and a greenhouse
D. All are alike.

16. Is one sentence still unclear even with a comma added?
A. Will the weather change, students?
B. Students, will love birds sing?
C. What can I use for mopping the floor, students?
D. All are alike.

17. Can one of these sentences be punctuated in two ways?
A. The next person who opens a window will be pushed out!
B. My uncle who lives in Denver is coming to see us.
C. My mother, who likes surprises, will be pleased with this present.
D. All are alike.

18. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship?
A. well educated man
B. state supported school
C. student organized club
D. All are alike.

19. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship?
A. hungry boy
B. country boy
C. angry boy
D. All are alike.

20. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship?
A. modern people
B. quiet people
C. some people
D. All are alike.

21. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship?
    A. pale yellow dress
    B. round red apple
    C. bright orange flower
    D. All are alike.

22. Does one of these word groups show a different kind of relationship?
    A. glass blower
    B. glass slipper
    C. glass stopper
    D. All are alike.

23. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. The man with the mustache was staring rudely.
    B. The two on the other end were laughing merrily.
    C. The fountain at eight o'clock was splashing noisily.
    D. All are alike.

24. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. My car was out of gas.
    B. My car ran into a tree.
    C. My car rattled at every bump.
    D. All are alike.

25. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. wooden shoes
    B. stylish dress
    C. leather belt
    D. All are alike.

26. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. Spinning too quickly, the man soon became dizzy.
    B. A man spinning too quickly can soon become dizzy.
    C. Spinning too quickly can soon make a man dizzy.
    D. All are alike.

27. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. The very idea excites me.
    B. Your answer seems very unusual.
    C. Your very specific reason is a good one.
    D. All are alike.

28. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. the most peaceful solution
    B. the easiest answer
    C. the nearest way
    D. All are alike.

29. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. By yourself would be dangerous.
    B. The boat is coming.
    C. Ice skating is fun.
    D. All are alike.

30. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. The rain, driven by the wind, was frightening.
    B. The river, confined by the cliffs, was rapid.
    C. The kite, held by the string, flapped madly.
    D. All are alike.

31. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. smallest
    B. longest
    C. detest
    D. All are alike.

32. Is one of these words different in formation?
    A. probably
    B. washable
    C. workable
    D. All are alike.

33. Is one of the underlined parts different in meaning?
    A. oxen
    B. papers
    C. boxes
    D. All are alike.

34. Is one of the underlined parts different in meaning?
    A. actress
    B. fortress
    C. lioness
    D. All are alike.

35. Is one of the following sentences quite different in meaning?
    A. Slowly the boat started.
    B. The boat started slowly.
    C. The boat slowly started.
    D. All are alike.

36. Is one of the following sentences quite different in meaning?
    A. Charley said one word only.
    B. Only Charley said one word.
    C. Charley said only one word.
    D. All are alike.

37. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. pleasantly
    B. lonely
    C. gentlemanly
    D. All are alike.

38. Is one of the underlined parts different in function?
    A. eliminate
    B. vandalize
    C. simplicity
    D. All are alike.

39. Does one of these phrases have only one meaning?
    A. summer vacation
    B. record sale
    C. monster rally
    D. All have more than one meaning.

40. Does one of these headlines have only one meaning?
    A. Face wrinkles with disgust
    B. Plan moves ahead.
    C. Ignore books in summer.
    D. All have more than one meaning.